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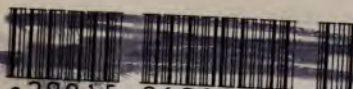
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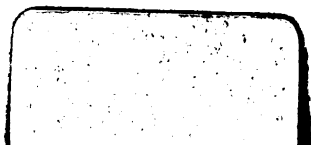


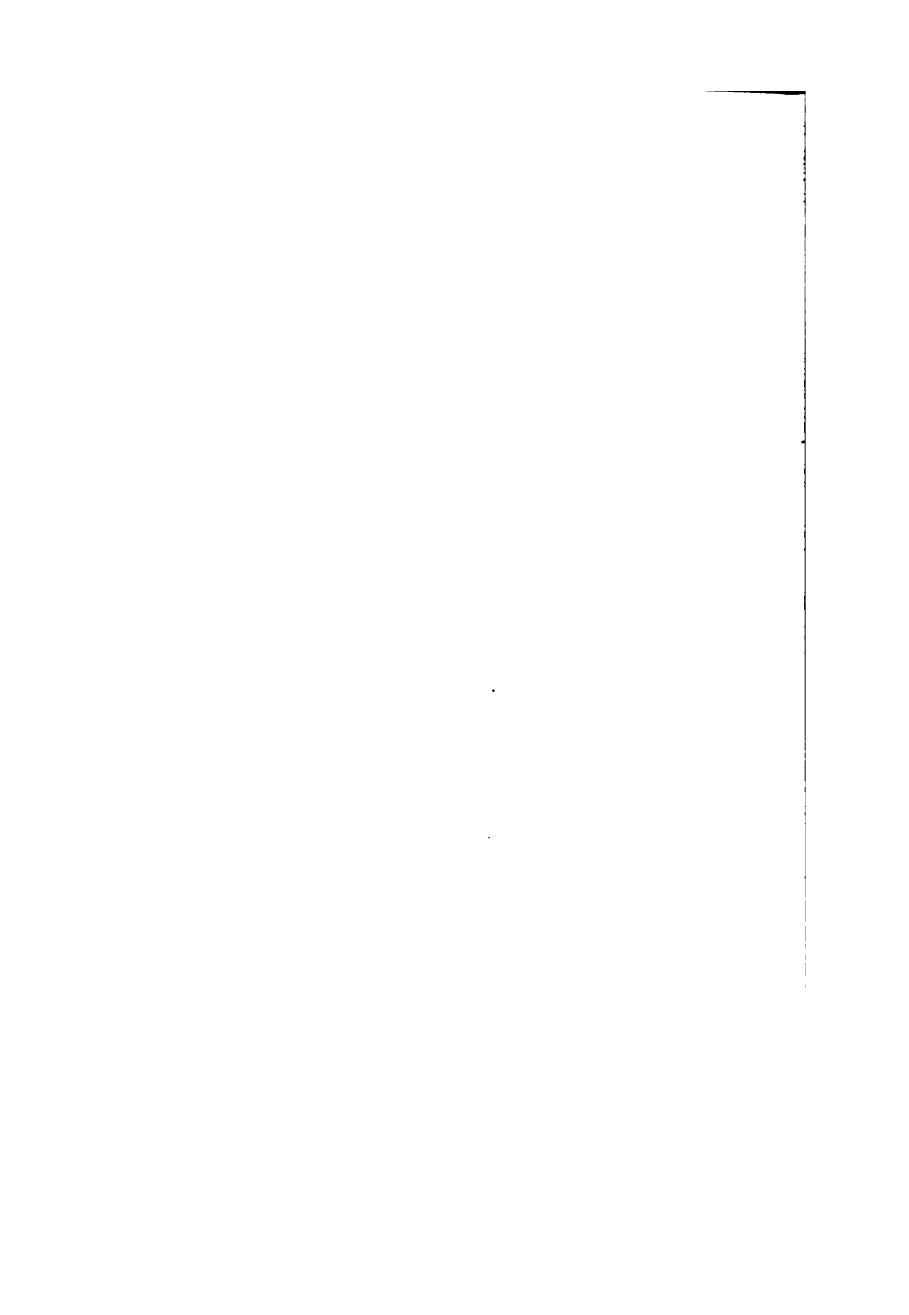
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CLASSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL REMARKS ON ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY.

1. Geographical Views of the Ancients.—The ideas of the Greeks and Romans on the subject of geography, especially in the earliest times, were very limited. As the continent of America was then unknown, and the extremities of the three great divisions of the Old World were unexplored, it was impossible that it should be otherwise. In the Homeric poems we find geographical knowledge confined almost entirely to the eastern basin of the Mediterranean. The cities of the mainland of Greece and both the eastern and western coast of the Ægean Sea are there familiarly spoken of, and Phœnicia and Ægypt are known by name, though by the latter of these words Homer means the river Nile; but the seas and countries to the west of Greece are a region of fable, as may be seen in the mythical descriptions of Ulysses' wanderings in the *Odyssey*, and total darkness hangs over the more distant lands, round which, as the ultimate boundary, the river Oceanus is supposed to flow. By the time of Herodotus the field of knowledge had been considerably enlarged, and that writer by his extensive travels and acute inquiries added greatly to it; but even his views were often erroneous, as where he speaks of Europe as stretching along both the other continents and being much broader than they are; for, though this notion in part arose from his including in Europe much of

what we should now call Russia in Asia, yet, as a matter of fact, the area of Asia alone is nearly five times as large as that of Europe. He also describes the course of the river Hister (Danube) as bending towards the south, in order to make its course correspond with that of the Nile, in accordance with a preconceived theory of a similarity between the northern and southern regions of the world. Much additional information was obtained by the campaigns of Alexander the Great, who penetrated into the north of India, and as far as the Jaxartes in Central Asia; and also by the foundation of the city of Alexandria, which, situated as it was near the meeting of Asia with Africa, and of the Mediterranean with the waters of the Southern Sea, formed a centre for gathering new facts from traders and other explorers. The spread of the Roman Empire further extended the area of knowledge, especially in respect of the north and west of Europe; so that Strabo, the great geographer of the Augustan age, was able not only to give a detailed account of a large portion of the world, but also to fix the boundaries of the great continents in much the same way as they are received now. But even he supposed that the Caspian was a gulf running in from the Northern Sea; and Ptolemy (A.D. 160), in whom the geographical science of the ancients culminated, considered that the south-eastern part of Asia was joined to the extremity of Africa by a southern continent. From his time onwards the knowledge of the subject made but little progress until America was discovered by Columbus, and Africa was circumnavigated by Vasco de Gama.

2. Seas of the Old World.—The Southern Sea.—The great sea to the south of Asia and east of Africa bore different names at different periods, and these varied somewhat in their application. Some geographers, as Herodotus, call it the Southern Sea (*ἡ νοτινὴ θάλασσα*), while others speak of it as the



Indian Ocean. This latter name, when used in its more restricted sense, signified the part immediately to the south of India, which also forms two great gulfs on either side of that peninsula, viz., the Gangeticus Sinus (Bay of Bengal) to the east, and Mare Erythræum to the west. The term "Red Sea" deserves especial notice, because it often had a more extended application than at the present day. When Herodotus speaks of the *ἐρυθρὴ θάλασσα*, he seems to include the whole of the Southern Sea, together with the two gulfs on either side of Arabia; and when he wishes to distinguish the westernmost of these gulfs, he calls it the Arabian Gulf (*Ἀράβιος κόλπος*). Subsequently this gulf had the name "Red Sea" appropriated to it, as we find it in the New Testament, and as we use it at the present day; while that to the east of Arabia was called the Persian Gulf, from its washing the southern and western shores of the land of Persis. These two great inlets form a contrast to one another, for while each of them is entered by a narrow strait, the Persian Gulf has a more irregular outline, and curves somewhat towards the north-west, where it receives the combined waters of the Euphrates and Tigris; whereas the Arabian Gulf, or Red Sea proper, is distinguished by its greater length and extreme straightness, and at its head divides into two branches—the gulf of Heroöpolis (Gulf of Suez), which runs up towards Ægypt, with an average width of thirty miles, and sandy shores; and the Elanitic Gulf (Gulf of Akaba), which penetrates into Arabia, twelve miles wide, and flanked by rocky mountains. Between these lay the peninsula of Sinai. The Red Sea has been in all ages a great highway of traffic, as it is the natural route by which the products of southern Asia and eastern Africa are brought to the west: thus we hear of Solomon and Hiram, king of Tyre, sending a fleet of ships from Ezion-geber, on the Gulf of Akaba, to bring gold from Ophir (1 Kings ix. 26–28).

3. **The Western and Northern Seas.**—The sea to the west of Europe and Africa was from early times called the Atlantic (ἡ Ἀτλαντὶς), from Mount Atlas, which was supposed to dominate the west of Africa, and from the mythological being with whom it was associated ; and was also called the sea outside the Pillars of Hercules (ἡ ἔξω τῶν στηλῶν θάλασσα), or simply the Mare Externum. By some Latin writers, especially poets, it is called Oceanus. For a long time it was considered not to be navigable, for the western regions were regarded as shrouded in clouds and darkness ; but as early as 500 B.C. a Carthaginian expedition under Hanno explored the coast for a considerable distance to the south, while another penetrated north as far as Britain. It was somewhere in this western sea that the Islands of the Blessed (Μακάρων νῆσοι) were supposed to be situated ; and when the Canary Islands, Madeira, and the other groups in their neighbourhood were discovered by the Romans, as they were before the Christian era, they were identified by them with that fabulous place, and called Fortunatæ Insulæ ; though the beauty of country and delightful climate which are attributed by the early Greek poets to the Μακάρων νῆσοι are so fully realised there as to suggest the idea that the legend may have had some foundation in real information. Whether the Island of Atlantis, which is mentioned in more than one of Plato's dialogues as existing in the western ocean, is anything more than a creation of that writer's imagination, it is hard to say ; but it is certain that several classical writers suggest the possibility of there being a great western continent, thus anticipating the discovery of America. The most famous passage to that effect is in the lines of Seneca :—

“ Venient annis sæcula seris,
 Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum
 Laxet, et ingens pateat tellus,
 Tethysque novos detegat orbes ;
 Nec sit terris ultima Thule.”

The different bays of the Western Sea received different names from the tribes or places in their neighbourhood ; thus the part immediately beyond the Pillars was called Oceanus Gaditanus, from the city of Gades (Cadiz) ; the Bay of Biscay, Oceanus Cantabrius ; the entrance to the English Channel, Oceanus Gallicus ; and the Channel itself, Oceanus Britannicus. The Oceanus Germanicus, to the north of this, and the Oceanus Sarmaticus, or Mare Suevicum (Baltic), were regarded as parts of the great Northern Ocean (Oceanus Septentrionalis), to which, from the reports of its vast masses of ice, the names Mare Concretum and Mare Pigruum are also given.

4. The Mare Internum. Its Characteristics.

—Far more important to the ancient world than the seas that have been hitherto mentioned was the great central basin, called in ancient times the Mare Internum (ἡ ἔσω θάλασσα), in contradistinction to the outlying oceans, and at the present day the Mediterranean. About its shores lived the peoples with whose history we are most concerned, and who did most to advance the civilisation of the world. To this result the sea itself in no slight degree contributed, for it was the highway of nations, by which races who were separated from one another by rugged tracts of country were enabled to hold communication. Without it the inventions of the East, such as weights and measures and the alphabet, would not have passed from Tyre to Greece ; the colonies, which carried Phœnician and Greek culture to lands before barbarous, would not have been founded ; the area of commerce would have been greatly restricted ; and a thousand quickening influences, arising from contact with other nations, and the reception and interchange of new ideas, would have been lost. The nature of its coasts combined with the character of their inhabitants to determine the direction which civilisation should take. The comparatively uniform outline of the north of

Africa forms a striking contrast to that of southern Europe, which is broken up into numerous deep inlets, while these again are subdivided into countless bays and harbours of smaller size, and fringed with islands. Besides this, while on the side of Africa no river of any importance except the Nile flows into the Mediterranean, on the north it receives the waters of the Ibērus, Rhodānus, and Padus, and through the Black Sea those of the Hister, Borysthēnes, Tanais, and others. To navigators it has been at all times a dangerous sea, owing to the currents formed by its numerous gulfs, the fickleness of the winds, and the sudden storms that descend from its projecting headlands. But these drawbacks were more than compensated by the nearness of land and the shelter of commodious harbours—safeguards which were wanting in the open sea, and were especially needed in the infancy of navigation.

5. **Its Divisions.**—This sea naturally divides itself into three great basins : the easternmost being formed by the Island of Crete, together with the coast of the Cyrenaica, which bends forward from the continent of Africa to meet it, and comprising the waters that wash the coasts of Ægypt, Syria, and the south of Asia Minor, together with the Ægean Sea. The central basin is still more strongly defined at its western extremity, where the angle of the Carthaginian territory, now Cape Bon, approaches closely to Sicily. This portion includes the Adriatic and the Ionium Mare, which lies beyond the outlet of that sea, between Greece and Sicily ; while to the south, where the African coast forms a bay between Cyrene and Carthage, lie the two gulfs called the Syrtes, well known for their dangerous reefs—the Syrtis major forming the eastern, the Syrtis minor the western angle. The western basin extended from Sicily to the Straits (Fretum Gaditanum), the two lofty rocks on either side of which, that of Calpe (Gibraltar) on the Spanish,



and that of Abŷla (Ceuta) on the African shore, were called the Pillars of Hercules. In this lay the two large islands of Corsica and Sardinia, and those of the Balearic group. The part immediately to the west of Italy was called the Mare Inferum, in contrast to the Adriatic, which was called the Mare Superum. In exploring this sea the Phœnicians were, as usual, the first in the field. The foundation of their colony at Gades, at a distance of 2,000 miles from Tyre, where the Tyrian Hercules was worshipped and gave his name to the Straits, is a proof of their boldness in navigation; and their daughter and rival city of Carthage, standing as it does at the meeting-point of the central and western basins, and at the point of nearest approach of Europe and Africa, shows their penetration in the choice of a site. The Greeks followed but slowly in the same track. At first, as we have already seen, their knowledge was confined to the eastern basin, and almost entirely to the Ægean Sea; then they cross from the southern islands to Africa and found Cyrène, and feel their way round the north of the central basin by the extremity of Italy and the east coast of Sicily, where their earliest colonies in that island were established; but, though the Phocæans, in founding Massilia on the south coast of Gaul, ventured on a bolder track, it was long before the Greeks had more than a vague knowledge of the western basin. At the height of the Roman power the entire sea was so completely enclosed by the provinces of the Empire, that the Latin writers frequently speak of it as *Mare Nostrum*. The Euxine Sea, and the others in the same system with it, together with the inland seas, like the Caspian, will be spoken of in connection with the countries in their neighbourhood.

6. Mountain Systems of the Old World.—
In tracing the connection of the mountain chains of the Old World we must begin from Eastern Asia.

There two great ranges have their origin—to the north the great Altai chain, to parts of which the name *Imāus* was given in ancient times, starting from the extremity of the continent near Behring's Straits, and following a south-westerly course into Central Asia ; while from the south-east the Himalaya runs diagonally to meet it, forming the northern boundary of India. Between these lie the vast elevated plateaux of Tibet and Tartary, the height of which in some places is 10,000 feet above the sea. From the point where these two chains approach nearest to one another, near the sources of the Indus, the ground descends westward to a lower, but still elevated, plateau, that of Iran or *Ariāna*, on the north of which run the mountains that separate it from the Caspian Sea, on the south those that border the Southern Sea, and are continued through Persis and Media, forming the eastern boundary of the great Assyrian plain. To the south-west the ground again rises in the highlands of Arabia, of which the chain that runs through the north of Africa, not far from the coasts of the Mediterranean, may be regarded as a further continuation. To the north-west the plateau of Iran is continued in Armenia, and throws off two great branches ; to the north the lofty chain of the Caucasus, which stretches, like a massive wall, from the south-west of the Caspian to the north-east of the Euxine ; to the south the mountains of Syria and Palestine. Still further to the west, in Asia Minor, the elevated land of the interior is separated from the Mediterranean by the Taurus ranges, from the Euxine by those of Olympus ; and these again are the parents of the principal European chains. In Europe the all-important line of demarcation is that which separates the central from the southern portion, rising first in the Hæmus, which is connected with the mountains of Asia Minor by lower hills ; then continued westward, first in the Dinaric Alps, and afterwards in the Alps themselves to the north of Italy ; and

finally forming the Pyrenees between Gaul and Spain. In the two eastern peninsulas of the Mediterranean, Greece and Italy, the mountains that intersect them run southward at right angles to this base-line, but in the westernmost, Spain, they follow the same direction with it, running from east to west in parallel lines. The mountains of Central Europe are of less importance for ancient history; but they may be conveniently grouped as forming an arc, the chord of which is the same base-line. These are the Cevennes, which start from the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, and run northward on the western bank of the Rhone; the Jura, between France and Switzerland; the Vosges, between France and Germany; after which the various ranges of Germany bend round towards the Carpathians, and these last descend to the Balkan. It only remains to add the mountains of Britain and the Scandinavian peninsula, which form a cluster in the north-west of Europe.

7. **The Three Great Continents.**—The idea of dividing the world into three continents seems to have arisen subsequently to the Homeric age, for the names by which they were afterwards distinguished—Europe, Asia, and Libya (the Greek name for Africa)—are not found in the Homeric poems. These names were well established before Herodotus' time, but that writer disapproved of this distribution of the continents, since, according to his views of geography, Ægypt was not rightly included in Libya, and Europe extended to the north of Asia. Still, a glance at the map will show that the received division is a reasonable one, especially in the case of Africa; and though the boundaries between Europe and Asia are not equally well defined, yet the continuous line of demarcation formed by the Ægean, Propontis, Euxine, and Palus Mæotis, together with the course of the river Tanais, which flows into the last-named

sea, was enough to suggest and to justify Strabo's view that the limit should be fixed here; and this is in some respects more accurate than the modern view, which places it at the Ural Mountains, the Caspian, and the Caucasus.

8. Physical Configuration of Europe, Asia, and Africa.—Now when we come to compare these continents in respect of their configuration, we are at once struck by the contrast they present to one another as regards their organic character. Africa, with its vast levels, its extensive lake-systems and river-valleys, but little divided by definite mountain chains, and its uniform coast-line, rarely broken up into bays or indented with harbours, is the lowest in the scale of development, an almost inorganic mass of ground. The numerous peninsulas of the coast of Asia, and the clearer demarcation of its various districts, give that country a considerable advantage; but its huge proportions, exceeding those of Europe and Africa together, cause a great part of its area to be removed from the sea, and the elevated table-lands, which occupy so large a portion of its surface, impede communication and are ill suited for the habitation of man. The continent of Europe, on the other hand, is like a highly developed organism. If Africa may be compared to the hoof of one of the more unwieldy animals, and Asia to the finer and more flexible paw, then Europe resembles the human hand, from the elaborate division of its parts and the opportunities it affords for contact. On every side, except towards the east, where it attaches itself to Asia, the sea penetrates deeply into the land, so that the peninsulas occupy about one fourth of the whole area; and the coast-line is further indented by numerous creeks and harbours, whence arises its extreme length in comparison of the mass of the country. Besides this, the mountains, though sufficiently well-defined, are not so massive as to prevent communication; there are no



great table-lands or desert regions, but the surface generally is distributed into plains, hills, and valleys of moderate size; and the country is watered by numerous rivers, which rise at no great distance from one another in the centre of the continent.

9. Political Comparison of the three Continents.—From the foregoing comparison it will readily be understood that the character of the three continents must have greatly influenced their history. Even if the inhabitants of Africa had been of a high type, it would have been difficult for them, under such unfavourable conditions, to attain to a superior culture. It is true that it was in the valley of the Nile, and in the neighbourhood of the Tigris and Euphrates in Asia, that the first great civilisations arose; nor must we omit to mention in passing the early development of the races of India and China. But these were not destined to influence in any great degree the fortunes of mankind, and the stationary character and sudden decline of the culture of the Egyptian and Assyrian kingdoms are to be attributed to the same causes as their early and rapid rise. For in primitive times, when commerce was hardly known, and it was necessary that every country should provide for its own wants, the combination of a hot climate and a well-watered soil was necessary to provide the means of life for a large population; and without a large population it would have been impossible that the great works, such as pyramids, temples, and palaces, should have been constructed, which are the principal monuments of the civilisation of those countries: but as the people were kept for the most part in a state of degradation, the culture came to an end with the dynasties by whom it had been maintained. In Europe, on the other hand, we find all the conditions of the highest and most permanent civilisation. Instead of the torrid climate of Africa, and the extremes of heat and cold which prevail in Asia,

that country enjoys a temperate and equable climate, which neither impedes the industry of man nor relaxes his energies. Instead of producing articles of luxury, such as spices and gems, it is capable of affording an ample supply of the necessaries of life, and allows of the gifts of many other lands being naturalized within its limits. The seas which washed its coasts, by penetrating far into the interior, at once divided the inhabitants into distinct nationalities, and provided them with the means of communication; and the same effect was produced in the more continental parts by the numerous rivers and the moderate height of the mountain-chains. It was only in such a country that political freedom could be developed, and varied forms of civilisation arise. There, by the independent existence and growth of various peoples, different types of national character, and different forms of government were produced, and freedom of thought was fostered in individual men, because they were not subject to uniform conditions of life, like the great masses of people of which Oriental states are composed. And while the separate peoples were thus stimulated to a healthy rivalry, and learned to look beyond themselves and their own ideas, there were no insuperable barriers to prevent them from acting in common. Of this process of development we see the earliest and perhaps the most striking examples in Greek and Roman history, and further progress has been made in the same direction in subsequent ages.

10. Races inhabiting the three Continents.

—The races by whom these continents were peopled are generally divided into three great families, viz., the Indo-European, the Semitic, and the Turanian. The last-named of these, which is also called Allophylian, is mostly composed of nomad and barbarous tribes, and includes the majority of the inhabitants of Africa, and those of Central and Northern Asia. The



Semitic family is represented by the Jews, the Phœnicians, the Arabians, and, to some extent, the Assyrians. But the family from which the races of greatest importance to ancient history, with the exception of the Jews, have proceeded, is the Indo-European or Aryan. The original home of the ancestors of this family is the plateau of Iran, or Ariana, in Asia, of which we have already spoken. When the tribe broke up from this primitive seat, it divided into two main branches, Eastern and Western. To the eastern belong, on the one hand, the Medes and Persians; on the other, the Indians, who ultimately descended on to the peninsula that has since borne their name. The western branch includes most of the inhabitants of Europe, and is in its turn divided into four great stocks, the Slavonic, the Celtic, the Teutonic, and the Pelasgic. To the Slavonic stock belong the Sarmatians and other inhabitants of what is now called Russia; to the Celtic the races of Gaul and Britain, and in part also of northern Italy; to the Teutonic the inhabitants of Germany, and most of the tribes whose irruptions ultimately broke up the Roman Empire. The Pelasgic, or Græco-Italian stock, included the Hellenes and other cognate races of the Greek peninsula, together with several of the tribes of Asia Minor, and most of those who inhabited the centre and south of Italy and Sicily, the Etruscans, perhaps, being an exception. In any historical review of the various countries of the world it is important to bear these relationships in mind, especially because, as a general rule, it is only races which have some affinity to one another that combine satisfactorily to form one nation.

II. Historical Influence of Mountains, Rivers, &c.—Before proceeding to the description of the various countries of the ancient world, it is important that we should notice the influence that the different physical features have exercised on their

inhabitants ; for the object of studying geography is not merely that we may be able to give some account of the countries themselves, but still more that we may understand the history of those who occupied them. Now the two great limits by which nations or races are separated from one another are the mountains and the sea ; but these two influences act as barriers in somewhat different ways. For, while the mountains are absolute limits and the passage from one side of them to the other has to be made, so to speak, in spite of them, the sea, on the other hand, is, from one point of view, a means of uniting peoples, because its surface affords a ready means of transit, when once the art of navigation has arisen. Thus, while it is true, with Horace, to speak of the ocean as *dissociabilis*, it is also true, with Homer, to call it ἡ γὰρ κίλευθα, or the highway of nations. The influence of rivers is of a different kind. We often find, indeed, that a great river is taken as a boundary between countries, because it forms a definite and permanent line, about the course of which there can be no dispute ; but this is not its natural influence. If we follow the migrations of barbarous hordes, we usually find that, while they are easily diverted from their route by a range of mountains, they seldom find any difficulty in crossing the greatest rivers ; and the same thing is true of the passage of armies. Rivers are essentially a means of communication. At an early period the course of a stream is like a finger-post to guide the explorer in a certain direction, and at all times their waters serve to carry the products of one country to another, and those of an inland district to the sea. Again, the mountains have been at all times the nurse of hardy and independent races, while the inhabitants of the plains, as we have seen in speaking of Assyria and Ægypt, are of a softer and more yielding material. Hence many of the greatest changes in history have arisen from mountain tribes descending on to the lowlands in their neigh-



bourhood and overpowering their occupants; as, for instance, when the Medes made themselves masters of Assyria, and when the Thessalians migrated from their original seats in Epirus into the plains of Thessaly, and thus set on foot the movement which ended in the passage of the Dorians into Peloponnesus, and the re-arrangement of most of the races in Greece. Similar effects have arisen from the neighbourhood of hot and cold countries, for the migratory tribes which gain a precarious subsistence in a cold region are apt to press forward towards a warmer and more fertile district, where they live in ease and plenty, and learn the arts of civilised life, until they in turn are overrun by other hordes. With this process we are familiar in the breaking up of the Roman Empire, when wave after wave of barbarians invaded Italy.

CHAPTER II.

UPPER ASIA.

1. Outlying Countries of Asia—Serica, India.

—In examining the various countries of the ancient world, we naturally commence from Asia, as that continent was the cradle of the human race, or, at all events, the earliest seat of those peoples who have exercised the greatest influence on the history of mankind. The geography of its outlying districts need not detain us long, as they were very imperfectly known to the Greeks and Romans, and remotely connected with them. The area, which is now occupied by the vast empire of China, was divided between two races; in the north the Seres, who were principally known to the Romans through the silk trade, that article being already produced in great quantities in that country; in the south the Sinæ. The Indian peninsula was known in its general features, especially the two great rivers that water it on the north, rising at no great distance from one another, and flowing to

the south-west and south-east respectively ; viz. (1) the Indus, which was reached by Alexander the Great during his famous eastern campaign in the district where it receives the waters of five great streams, which for that reason is now called the Punjab (five waters). The most important of these tributaries are the Hydaspes (Jelum) and Hypānis or Hyphāsis (Sutlej). (2) The Ganges, which was considered the greatest of all rivers, and is described by Virgil as 'septem surgens sedatis amnibus.' This flowed into the Gangeticus Sinus on the eastern side of India, while the Indus found its way into the Erythræan Sea. The principal exports which came to Europe from India were gold and ivory. To the south of the peninsula lay the island of Taprobāne (Ceylon).

2. **Scythia.**—**The Jaxartes and Oxus.**—The country which in later times was called by the ancients by the name of Scythia comprised a large part of central and northern Asia, and was divided into two portions by the Mons Imaus (part of the Altai chain); the district between those mountains and Serica being Scythia *extra Imaum*, and corresponding to the modern Tibet, while the part between them and the Caspian, and for some distance towards the north, was Scythia *intra Imaum*. The last-named region contained two important rivers, the Jaxartes (Sir) and the Oxus (Jihon), both of which flow from east to west, the Jaxartes being the more northerly of the two : at the present day both of them discharge their waters into the Sea of Aral, but this does not seem to have been the case in ancient times. The Jaxartes indeed has not changed its course, though ancient writers speak of it as flowing into the Caspian ; but this may be true, if, as is sometimes thought, the Sea of Aral was formerly a bay of that great inland sea, and not, as it is now, a separate piece of water. The Oxus, on the other hand, almost certainly flowed directly into the Caspian, and its channel in the latter part of its course

was different from that which it now follows : hence it formed a great artery of traffic, by which the produce of Central Asia passed by way of the Euxine into Europe. Between the upper courses of the two rivers lay Sogdiāna (Bokhara), and on the lower course of the Jaxartes dwelt the Massagētæ, in fighting with whom Cyrus lost his life. In his description of that occurrence, Herodotus calls that river the Araxes. It was afterwards reached by Alexander the Great, who founded a city on its banks, which he called Alexandria Eschâte, as marking the furthest limit of his empire. The tribes who inhabited Scythia cannot be regarded as forming one people, though in all probability most of them belonged to the Turanian family (see p. 16); the reason why they were included under one name was that they were all nomads and travelled in tented waggons. So Horace describes them as "*Campestres Scythæ, quorum plaustra vagas rite trahunt domos.*" Hence the name was employed at different periods in very different senses, and to signify the inhabitants of distinct districts. Still, it is certain that there was a race who properly bore the name of Scythæ, and Herodotus speaks of them as mainly inhabiting the countries to the north of the Euxine, between the Hister and the Tanais, in the steppes of Southern Russia, though others were settled further to the east. It was from them that the name came to bear a more general sense in later times.

3. **Sarmatia.**—Sarmatia, like Scythia, was divided into two portions, which were called Asiatic and European Sarmatia. But in this instance also the name was used in a narrower and a wider acceptation, for the Sauromātæ of Herodotus occupied a limited area on the east of the Tanais (Don) and Palus Mæōtis (Sea of Azov). This latter form of the name was afterwards extended by the Greek writers, so as to include the rest of Asiatic Sarmatia; and the Roman poets use Sauromata and Sarmāta indiscrimi-

minately, according as one or the other best suits the verse. The boundaries of the Asiatic portion were the Caucasus on the south; on the east and west, the Caspian and Euxine, and the Rha (Volga) and Tanais; and on the north the watershed from which the streams begin to flow to the Northern Sea. Of the European portion the Vistula was regarded as the western, the Tanais the eastern limit; and in the opposite direction it extended from the Baltic and Gulf of Bothnia to the Carpathians and the neighbourhood of the Euxine. Here, as in the case of Scythia, a great variety of tribes must have been included in so wide an area; but it would appear that in its original and proper application the name belonged to races of the Slavonic stock.

4. **The Plateau of Iran or Ariana.**—We turn now to the great central district, which lies between India and the deserts of Arabia, and is bounded on the north by the Caucasus, the Caspian Sea, and the country to the east of it, and on the south by the Persian Gulf and Erythræan Sea. Within this region all the great Oriental monarchies arose; on the western side, those of Assyria, Babylonia, Media, and Persia; on the north, that of Parthia. The central and eastern portion of it is occupied by the great table-land, which is called Iran or Ariana, and lies on an average 4,000 feet above the sea, enclosed on all sides by ranges of mountains. We have already seen that this upland level is a continuation of the still higher plateaux of Tartary and Tibet (p. 12); and also that it was the original seat of the ancestors of the various tribes of the Indo-European family (p. 17); the other name of which, Aryan, is connected with that of the country. It was eminently a pastoral region, and that primitive people was a race of shepherds. The mountains of Gedrosia separated it from the Erythræan Sea, those of Persis from the Persian Gulf, those of Media from the valley of the

Euphrates and Tigris. The north-western portion was occupied by Parthia, between which country and the Caspian the Hyrcanian mountains intervened; the north-eastern portion by Bactria.

5. Parthia, Bactria.—Parthia was a very mountainous country, and to this feature and its remoteness we must attribute its greatness. While the great Persian Empire was at its height, Parthia, as might be expected, was unable to make head against it; but the defeat of Crassus (B.C. 53) showed the Romans how serious an enemy they had to contend against in the Parthians, and all through the Augustan age they were the most dreaded antagonists of the masters of the world. To reach that country from the west it was necessary to penetrate, either through the rugged mountains of Armenia and Media, or else, from the side of the Caspian, through the lofty range now called Elburz, forming a westerly continuation of the Hyrcanian mountains, which reaches at one point an elevation of more than 18,000 feet. The principal pass that led through this was called the Caspian Gates (*Caspiae Pylæ*), and this afforded an entrance both into Parthia and Media. The principal town was called *Hecatompylos*, and was the residence of its rulers, the *Arsacidæ*. Bactria, with its capital city *Bactra*, occupied a somewhat similar, though still more remote, position among the mountains near the head waters of the *Oxus*. The successors of Alexander, who ruled Syria, of the family of the *Seleucidæ*, reduced this country to the condition of a province; but about the middle of the third century B.C. the *Bactrians* recovered their independence, and for nearly 200 years maintained a very flourishing kingdom, as is proved by their numerous and handsome coins.

6. Armenia.—The plateau of Iran is continued towards the north-west in a still more elevated table-land, that of Armenia, which is as much as 6,000 feet above the sea. The position of this country is

remarkable as occupying a great part of the triangle which lies between three seas, the Mediterranean, the Euxine, and the Caspian. In consequence of this, and of its standing between Greece and Rome on the one side, and Persia and Parthia on the other, it was the scene of continual struggles, either for its own independence, or in the contests between those empires. Nor is it less conspicuous as the birth-place of great rivers, of which the Euphrates and Tigris flow towards the Persian Gulf, the Araxes to the Caspian, and the Acampsis to the Euxine. In the midst of its upland plains and valleys lie several lakes of great size, the most important of which, that of Arsène (Van), is as large as the Lake of Geneva. In consequence of its elevation the climate is very severe, and the ground is deeply covered with snow during many months of the year. Xenophon in the *Anabasis* tells us of the sufferings and privations that he and his soldiers experienced in consequence of this in passing through Armenia; and he also describes the custom of the inhabitants of living in underground dwellings, which prevails at the present day. Its boundaries are, on the south Mesopotamia and the Median mountains; on the east the Caspian; on the north the tribe of Ibēri, who separate Armenia from the Caucasus; on the west Asia Minor, the limit of which is formed by the ranges of Taurus and Anti-Taurus: these mountains also penetrate into Armenia, the highest point of Taurus being the Mons Niphātes, to the west of Lake Arsene. In contradistinction to the Armenia which has been now described, the name of Armenia Minor is sometimes given to the neighbouring part of Asia Minor, south of the kingdom of Pontus; the line of demarcation of the two Armenias was the Euphrates. The passes by which the country could be entered were from Trapezus on the Euxine, which has always been a favourite route for traffic from Upper Asia; from



the interior of Asia Minor, to the south of Lesser Armenia; and from Mesopotamia, by a way that passes near the head waters of the Tigris. But all of these presented great difficulty to an invading army. In the northern part of the country rises the highest of all its mountains, Ararat, a gigantic snow-covered mass, with two summits, the loftiest of which is more than 17,000 feet above the sea. Placed as it is, it appears like a huge boundary stone to mark the division of continents; and, as a matter of fact, at the present day, parts of its lower declivities are possessed by the three empires of Russia, Turkey, and Persia. The earlier capital of Armenia, Artaxāta, was situated in the northern districts, on the banks of the Araxes, near Mount Ararat; while the later, Tigranocerta, which was founded by Tigranes, and sacked by Lucullus in his eastern expedition, was on an affluent of the Tigris, to the south of Mount Niphates.

7. The Caucasus, and Tribes in its Neighbourhood.—The river Araxes (Aras) rises in the north-west part of Armenia, and flows round to the east, under the northern slopes of Mount Ararat; after which it finds its way into the Caspian. Before reaching that sea, however, it is joined by the waters of another considerable river, the Cyrus (Kur), flowing from the north-west, where the watershed lies, from which the streams drain to the Euxine and the Caspian respectively. This watershed lies much nearer to the former of these seas, and in the interval between it and the easternmost bay of the Euxine was the land of Colchis, so famous in early Greek story from its connection with the Argonauts. The river which intersects it is the Phasis. The valley of the Cyrus and its tributaries, lying between Armenia and the Caucasus, is the land of the Ibēri (Georgia). Between these and the Caspian were the Albāni, who also occupied the eastern part of the chain of Caucasus, and some part of the territory

north of it. The Caucasus itself, which stretches across the whole isthmus, between the Euxine and Caspian, maintaining a great average elevation, and in its highest summits, Mounts Kazbek and Elburz, reaching the height of 16,000 and nearly 18,000 feet, is a most imposing mountain barrier. Just at its centre it is cut through by a remarkable pass, called in ancient times the *Caucasiæ* or *Sarmaticæ Pylæ*, and at the present day the Pass of Dariel. A second pass led round its eastern extremity between the mountains and the sea, called *Albanicæ*, or *Caspicæ Pylæ*. This must be carefully distinguished from the pass of the same name on the south of the Caspian.

8. **The Euphrates and Tigris.**—On either side of the sources of the Araxes there rise two streams, which flow towards the south-west, separated from one another by a spur of Anti-Taurus, and joining their waters to the south of Armenia Minor, form the Euphrates (*Frat*). This important river, which the Jews emphatically called “the great river,” and the course of which extends to 1,780 English miles, formed the ultimate boundary of the Roman Empire, which was only for a short time advanced beyond it in the reign of Trajan. Shortly after the junction of its two streams it bends towards the south, and here on the one side, among the Armenian mountains, lay the province of *Sophène*; on the other, pushed out from the south-east of Asia Minor and the north of Syria, that of *Commagène*: both of these at various periods, even under the Roman Emperors, existed as separate kingdoms. The Euphrates then flows to the south-west, towards the innermost angle of the Mediterranean, and into that sea it would discharge itself, were it not for the intervening range of Taurus; but being diverted at that point, it makes a sharp bend, and flows towards the south-east with many windings, between the fertile districts of Mesopotamia and Babylonia and the Arabian deserts, until

it reaches the Persian Gulf. Its principal tributary was the Chabōras (the Araxes of Xenophon), which, together with its numerous affluents, flowed from the mountains in the north of Mesopotamia. The most important passage of the stream was at Thapsācus, near the bend just mentioned, and by it was the usual line of communication between Asia Minor and Persia. It was forded by the army of the younger Cyrus, and Alexander constructed there a bridge, from which it afterwards bore the name of the Zeugma. By this also Crassus passed on his fatal Eastern expedition. The most famous places on the banks of the Euphrates were—at its point of junction with the Chaboras, Circesium, the Carchemish of Scripture, where Pharaoh Necho, King of Ægypt, was defeated by Nebuchadnezzar (Jer. xlv. 2); near the place where it approaches closest to the Tigris, Cunaxa, where the great battle took place between Cyrus and his brother Artaxerxes, ending in the defeat and death of the former, from which event commenced the retreat of the Ten Thousand; and somewhat lower down the stream the great city of Babylon. The Tigris rises in three separate streams, the westernmost of which flows from Sophene, close to the Euphrates, the easternmost from Mount Niphates; and after these have united it skirts the mountains of Assyria, passing Nineveh, and at the southern extremity of Mesopotamia comes within twenty miles of the Euphrates, with which river it was connected by means of canals. Near this point, on the right bank of the Tigris, the important city of Seleucia was founded by Seleucus Nicator; while close by, on the left bank, was Ctesiphon, which rose to importance with the decay of its neighbour, and was the winter residence of the Parthian kings. After this the Tigris again withdraws from its sister river, until at last they join their waters some distance above their entrance into the sea.

9. **Mesopotamia—Babylonia.**—The extensive district between the Euphrates and Tigris was called Mesopotamia, or “the land between the rivers.” This, however, did not include the country enclosed by their lower course, which was known as Babylonia, the point of division being the waist formed by the approach of the two rivers, where a great fortification, called the Median Wall, was carried across from one to the other, having been erected at an early period by the rulers of Babylon to prevent the incursions of the Medes. On the north Mesopotamia was bounded by the mountains of Armenia. In the Bible it is commonly known as Padan-Aram. It was, on the whole, a level country, but not in the same sense as Babylonia, the whole of which was an unbroken alluvial plain; hence, also, as well as from the climate, arose the difference of their products; for while much timber was brought from the forests of Mesopotamia, and its pastures supported numerous herds of cattle, few trees were found in Babylonia, except the date-palm, which was of great importance to the natives, and the extreme fertility of the soil produced extraordinary crops of corn. The principal cities of Mesopotamia, in addition to those already noticed on the banks of the Euphrates, were: Edessa, an important town in the north-west, forty miles from the Zeugma of the Euphrates, situated on a tributary of that river, the Scirtus—this was probably the site of Ur of the Chaldees, the original home of Abraham and his ancestors; Charrhæ, somewhat to the south of that place, the scene of the great defeat of Crassus by the Parthians, which also was Haran, the place to which Abraham migrated before he finally departed into Canaan (Acts vii. 2); and Nisibis, the capital of Mygdonia, the north-eastern district of Mesopotamia, which was rebuilt by one of the successors of Alexander, and called Antiochia Mygdoniæ, and was a frequent bone of contention between the Romans

and the Parthians. In Babylonia we need only notice the capital, Babylon, of the size and magnificent buildings of which Herodotus has left us a vivid description—a city exactly square, with gigantic walls and a hundred brazen gates, divided into two parts by the Euphrates. Babylonia was the seat of the first great Eastern kingdom, that of Nimrod, before Nineveh became the head-quarters of the Assyrian dominion. From that time it was subject to the Assyrians, until, about B.C. 750, it asserted its independence, and rose to be the great power that carried away the Jews into captivity. After its conquest by Cyrus it became a province of the Persian Empire. When we hear of Chaldæa as a separate district, it means the territory about the lower course of the separate stream of the Euphrates.

10. *Assyria*.—Assyria, in the proper sense of the term, was the long and comparatively narrow country reaching southwards from the confines of Armenia, and separated from Media by the lofty range of Zagros, and from Mesopotamia by the Tigris. In other words, it was the region of the eastern affluents of that river. The principal of these are the Zabatus, or Lycus (Greater Zab), towards the north, which flowed from the territory of the Cardüchi, through whom the Ten Thousand made their retreat; and the Gyndes towards the south, entering the Tigris somewhat above Ctesiphon. As was the case with most of the other great kingdoms, the original name received a wider application with the extension of the empire, and Mesopotamia and Babylonia came to be included in Assyria. The great city of Ninus, or Nineveh, which was the centre of the Assyrian Empire, and of which such great remains have lately been discovered near Mosul, was situated in the neighbourhood of the Tigris, not far from the point where it received the waters of the Zabatus. According to some authors it was even greater than Babylon, and the splendour of its

sculptures and other monuments bear witness to a very remarkable civilisation. It was to this country that the tribes of Israel were carried into captivity. The city was ultimately captured, and the kingdom brought to an end by the Medes under Cyaxares (B.C. 606). A little to the east of the Zabatus lay Arbēla, in the neighbourhood of which the great final struggle took place between Darius of Persia and Alexander the Great.

II. **Media, Susiana, Persis.**—Eastward of Assyria, and reaching from thence to the confines of Ariana, was the territory of the Medes, the next great power in Upper Asia. Media was an elevated country, well suited for training a hardy race of soldiers. Its northern division, called Atropatēne, formed the natural link between the tablelands of Iran and Armenia; but the southern and larger part was that which is most associated with the history of the people, and contained their capital, Ecbaṭāna (Hamadan). The territory of Susiāna, which lay to the south of this, was a continuation of the same mountainous district towards the head of the Persian Gulf. Its principal river is the Choaspes, which joins the Euphrates below its junction with the Tigris. The northern district, from which it flows, is called Elymāis, the original Elam, by which name this entire district is called in Scripture. On its eastern bank was situated the city of Susa, which became the centre of government in the Persian Empire, so that the chief treasury was there, and roads were made to lead to it from all the provinces. To the south-east of Susiana again, between the Persian Gulf and Ariana, were the highlands of Persis, the original home of the most powerful race in Asia, and the most dreaded enemies of the Greeks. From this centre their empire was extended over a great part of Asia, so that it included twenty satrapies, which yielded an enormous income, and furnished unlimited supplies of soldiers. The ancient capital,



Pasargādæ (Murghab), was situated in the centre of the country, and from its containing the tomb of Cyrus and other historical memorials, became to the Persian nation what Moscow is to modern Russia, the object of veneration from its associations. The later and more splendid capital, Persepolis, which was burnt by Alexander, lay somewhat further to the north. By shaking off the yoke of the Medes, by the defeat of Cræsus, and by the capture of Babylon, Cyrus established the supremacy of the Persians. In this, and in the previous overthrow of the Assyrian Empire by the Medes, we have an illustration of the tendency in history already mentioned (page 18), of poor and hardy mountain tribes to overpower the wealthy peoples of the lower country in their neighbourhood.

At the close of this survey it may be well to notice that the Medes and Persians, together with the Armenians, and probably also the Parthians, belonged to the Indo-European family of the human race; the Assyrians to the Semitic; and the early Babylonians, or Accadians, to the Turanian family. We should also remark the number of Greek cities which were founded throughout Upper Asia by Alexander and his successors, such as Alexandria Eschate, Seleucia, and Antiochia Mygdoniæ—and many others will have to be added in Syria and Asia Minor—for these were of the greatest importance in spreading Greek civilisation, and still more in providing a means of communication in the Greek language.

CHAPTER III.

SYRIA AND PALESTINE.

1. **Syria.**—We now turn to those districts of Asia which lie between the Mediterranean Sea and the deserts of Arabia. The name of Syria is sometimes used as embracing the whole of these, but it

may be more convenient to consider it in its more restricted sense, as signifying the country northward from the sources of the Jordan, thus excluding Palestine. Its mountains are an offset from the great range of Taurus in the south of Asia Minor and west of Armenia, and follow the line of the coast southwards, leaving at intervals spaces of level land between their bases and the sea. The northern part of this chain is called Mons Amānus, and where this descends on the sea, the difficult passage is formed which was called the Syrian Gates; while in the south are the two parallel ranges of Libānus (Lebanon) and Anti-Libanus, which are continued northward, though under different names, through the central region. Of these mountains, far the most conspicuous is Lebanon, which rises at one point to the height of nearly 12,000 feet; hence its name, like that of the highest mountains in many parts of the world, means the "White Mountain," and Tacitus speaks of it as being, even in the heat of summer, a resting-place for snow—"fidum nivibus" (*Hist.* v. 6). Anti-Lebanon culminates at its southern extremity in Mount Hermon, which is 10,000 feet high. We hear in Scripture of the famous forests of fir and cedar on Lebanon, the wood of which was used in building the temple of Solomon, and furnished the Phœnicians with materials for their vessels; at the present day there is hardly any trace of these, a single group of cedars being all that remains. Between Libanus and Anti-Libanus lies the long and extremely fertile valley-plain of Coele-Syria, or Hollow Syria, and here the four most important rivers of Syria and Palestine take their rise and flow in different directions—the Orontes and Leontes in the valley itself, the Jordan and Abāna in the neighbouring mountains. The source of the Orontes was in the neighbourhood of Baalbek or Heliopolis, remains of the famous temples of which place are still standing; from thence it

pursues its course to the north between the mountains in which Libanus and Anti-Libanus are prolonged, and then, making a sharp bend near Antioch, falls into the Mediterranean. The Leontes, rising in the same watershed, takes a similar, though shorter, course towards the south, and enters the sea with a corresponding bend between Sidon and Tyre. Of the Jordan we shall speak later on.

2. **Damascus ; Antioch ; Palmyra.**—The Abana issues from copious sources on the eastern side of Anti-Libanus, and being joined by the other river which is mentioned in Scripture in the same connection, the Pharpar, flows in innumerable channels through and around Damascus, and then loses itself in two lakes in the direction of the desert. From this circumstance arises the luxuriant vegetation of that city, which is often spoken of as the most beautiful in the world. Damascus was the early capital of the Syrian kingdom, and dates from a high antiquity, for it is mentioned in the book of Genesis (xiv. 15 ; xv. 2). At a later period it was eclipsed by Antioch, the capital of the Greek rulers of Syria, the Seleucidæ. This place, which, to distinguish it from other cities of the same name, was called Antioch on the Orontes, was situated on the left bank of that river, about twenty miles distant from the sea. Its soft climate and beautiful surroundings made it a suitable place of residence for a luxurious dynasty. On the sea-coast, somewhat to the north of the mouth of the Orontes, was its port, Seleucia, while on the opposite side of that river the Mons Casius rose to the height of more than 5,000 feet. The site of Antioch was well chosen for purposes of commerce, for it was connected with the sea by a navigable river, and on the land the distance was comparatively short to the Euphrates and Mesopotamia. The old trade-route from Syria to the interior, however, was by Tadmor or Palmÿra (both these names mean "the

city of palm-trees"), which was situated on an oasis in the Syrian desert, about half-way between Damascus and Circesium on the Euphrates. Hence that city was from early times an important station; but it rose to its greatest celebrity shortly before its fall, under Zenobia, the widow of its king, Odenāthus, in the time of the Emperor Aurelian (A.D. 270). Of the outlying regions of Syria, to the south of Damascus, we may notice Ituræa, to the east of Galilee, beyond the spurs of Hermon; and Trachonitis, which lay eastward of this towards the desert. Of Decapolis, or the district of the ten cities, we can speak with less confidence, for towns in very different parts of the country are included in it by different writers; but we may place it in part to the east of the Sea of Tiberias.

3. *Phœnicia*.—Though Phœnicia was properly a province of Syria, yet both in its position and its history it is so independent of the rest of the country, that it requires to be considered separately. It comprised the district between Mount Libanus and the sea, extending from beyond the northern extremity of that range to a point somewhat south of Mount Carmel. This territory, though 120 miles long, is seldom more than twelve miles broad, and is divided into a number of small distinct areas by spurs of Libanus, which form promontories on the coast. In this respect it resembles the district of Achaia, in the north of the Peloponnese; and this may account for both those countries being under a federal government; for, as by nature they were formed into numerous separate states, contiguous to one another, and enclosed by a common boundary-line, it was necessary to their safety that these states should form a confederation. The principal cities of Phœnicia were: Arādus, in the northernmost portion of the territory; then Tripolis, so called from its being the federal town of the three chief cities, Aradus, Tyre, and Sidon; between this and the con-

spicuous headland on which Berytus (Beyrout) stands, was the river Adōnis, the name of which is associated with the licentious rites of the Syrian Aphrodite (Astarte or Ashtaroth), which were performed at its source; the waters of the stream were said to be annually reddened by the blood of Thammuz (Adonis). Then follow Sidon, Tyre, and Ptolemāis, the modern Acre, with its famous bay, the southern boundary of which was formed by Mount Carmel.

4. **Tyre and Sidon.**—Two of these cities, Tyre and Sidon, were of the utmost importance to the ancient world, not from their having fostered any of “the thoughts that shake mankind”—for their policy, like that of Venice, which state in so many points they resemble, was from first to last a selfish one, and even their maritime discoveries were kept secret, lest other rivals should enter on the same field—but because of their widely-extended colonies, including Carthage, and still more because they carried the arts of life to Greece, where they found a more congenial home. Nowhere in antiquity was the art of shipbuilding so early and so fully developed; nowhere was navigation so skilful and so bold. To the Greek waters they resorted for the purple mussel, from which was extracted the famous Tyrian dye, and on the shores of the Ægean, as, for instance, on the Island of Thasos, and at Scapte-Hyle on the mainland of Thrace, they had settlements for the working of gold-mines; and in return they introduced into those countries the alphabet and other inventions, and various southern trees, such as the cypress and the palm. At an early period it would seem that Sidon was the more important of the two cities, but Tyre has been more famous from its more lasting prosperity, and from the famous sieges it underwent from the armies of Shalmanezzer, king of Assyria, Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon, and Alexander of Macedon. No better idea can be obtained of the greatness of

Tyre than by reading the xxvi.-xxviii. chapters of Ezekiel, which refer to the siege of Nebuchadnezzar. That by Alexander is the most famous siege in ancient history, on account of the extraordinary devices resorted to on both sides. The city of Tyre (in this point also resembling Venice) was situated on an island, separated by a channel, about three-quarters of a mile wide, from the mainland, where stood the old town, or Palæ-Tyrus. In order to approach the city, Alexander filled up the whole of the intervening space with a huge mole, so that ever since that time Tyre has been joined to the neighbouring continent. At the end of seven months the place was captured (B.C. 332), but not from the land side, for the breach was made from the sea by means of battering-rams fixed on vessels. The native name of Tyre was Sor, whence comes the name Sarra, sometimes used by the Romans, as where Virgil speaks of Tyrian purple as "Sarranum ostrum."

5. **The Jordan and Dead Sea.**—The determining feature of the topography of Palestine is the Jordan. Its name signifies "the descender," and is especially appropriate, because hardly any other river in the world has so rapid a fall in proportion to the length of its course. Rising between two spurs of Anti-Libanus, near the city of Cæsarea Philippi, where once stood Laish, or Dan, the northernmost limit of the Holy Land, it flows due south, which direction it maintains throughout its course, and after passing through the small lake of Merom, reaches that of Galilee or Tiberias, which is more than 300 feet beneath the level of the sea. Emerging from this, it descends in rapids with such steepness to the Dead Sea, that that piece of water is actually 1,300 feet below the Mediterranean. There it is lost, the waters escaping, it is supposed, by evaporation. That extraordinary lake, from its barren, salt-encrusted shores, its bituminous waters, its power of supporting heavy



bodies, and the volcanic phenomena by which it is surrounded, has excited the wonder both of ancient and modern writers. At its southern end a low watershed separates it from the long valley which runs down to the head of the Gulf of Akaba, suggesting the idea that at some remote period the Jordan may have flowed into the Red Sea. From the eastern side a tributary, the Jabbok, flows into the Jordan, and another stream, the Arnon, into the Dead Sea.

6. Physical Conformation of Palestine.—

Into the geography of Palestine, full as it is of interesting details, we can only enter very briefly. In order to understand its physical conformation, it will be well to take two sections of the country, first from west to east, and then from south to north. If we draw a line across it at the parallel of Jerusalem, we first pass through a level district between the sea and the foot of the mountains, the western part of which is a sandy strip skirting the coast, the eastern a belt of extremely fertile land. Then the hills rise towards the east until they reach the height of 2,000 feet, after which they descend steeply in a succession of terraces to the Ghor, or Jordan valley. In this the vegetation is almost tropical, from its deep depression and sheltered situation. On the further side the ground again rises in the mountains of Gilead, which pass by a gradual transition into the desert uplands of Arabia. Again, if we follow the central mountain-chain from south to north, we commence with what is called in Scripture "the south country," on the edge of the southern desert, from whence there is a rapid rise towards Hebron, near which the highest elevation (about 3,000 feet) is reached; after this the range continues to be well defined, until it is suddenly brought to an end by the plain of Esdraëlon or Jezreel, which crosses the whole country from the sea almost to the Jordan, intersected by the stream

of the Kishon, and flanked on its western side by the steep slopes of Mount Carmel. To the north of this plain the mountains again rise, and ultimately attach themselves to the chain of Anti-Libanus. From Hermon also at the end of that chain proceeds the parallel range, which skirts the eastern side of the Jordan valley. This diversified area, though now for the most part bare, was in ancient times highly productive—"a land flowing with milk and honey." We can also see from its position that, though it lay between the great empires of Assyria and Ægypt, at the meeting-point of the east and the west, and consequently was specially fitted to become, in the fulness of time, a starting-place for the preaching of the Gospel, it was yet a land apart, in which the true religion could be maintained intact; being bounded on the one side by a wide expanse of desert, and on the other by an almost harbourless sea.

7. Position of the non-Israelite Inhabitants of Palestine.—Before the entrance of the Israelites into Palestine the country was in the hands of a number of tribes, either related to them through the family of Abraham, or of a distinct race; though it should be remembered that the Canaanites, and also the Phœnicians, belonged to the same Semitic stock as the Hebrews. The Philistines are an exception, for they seem to have come from over the sea, whence arose their worship of the fish-god, Dagon, and their name in the Septuagint version is "aliens" (*ἄλλόφυλοι*). By them the southern part of the maritime plain was inhabited, while in its northern part was the plain of Sharon, famous for its fertility and its flowers. This and the other level lands, the plain of Jezreel and the Jordan valley, were in possession of the Canaanites ("Lowlanders"), in the restricted sense of the term. The central mountains were occupied by the Hittites, the Jebusites, and the Hivites, lying in that order from south to north—the Hittites

about Hebron, the Jebusites about Jerusalem (anciently Jebus), the Hivites about Gibeon. In the wild mountains to the west of the Dead Sea lived the Amorites ("Highlanders"), but their principal seat was on the east of the Jordan, where, after expelling the Ammonites and Moabites, they had founded two great kingdoms, that of Sihon, in the land of Gilead, and that of Og, further to the north, in Bashan. Of the tribes related to the Israelites we find the Ammonites and Moabites, the descendants of Lot, beyond the Dead Sea and Jordan; Ammon, between the Jabbok and the Arnon, Moab to the south of the last-named stream. For some distance to the south of the Dead Sea extended Idumæa, the territory of the Edomites, Esau's descendants, which contained the celebrated defile of Petra, the direct route from the Gulf of Akaba to the eastern side of Palestine. One tribe of this family, the Amalekites, were settled between the Philistines and the Amorites on the southern border of the Holy Land. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, descended from the children of Abraham by Hagar and Keturah, occupied parts of the southern desert.

8. Position of the Tribes of Israel.—The history of the tribes of Israel is intimately connected with their position in the country. In some cases the occupation of the tribe was determined by it. In the history of the Judges, the tribe from which a judge arises is frequently decided by the neighbourhood of that tribe to the common enemy. The outlying tribes, also, and those in the least defensible positions, either disappear or remain in insignificance, while the power is in the hands of those well posted in the centre of the country. Simeon, who occupied the "south country," soon faded away on the edge of the desert, according to Jacob's prophecy, that he should be "divided in Jacob and scattered in Israel" (Gen. xlix. 7). On the lofty mountains to the north

of this lay the lion tribe of Judah, which, especially after the capture of the citadel of Jebus (Jerusalem), held the strongest position. To the north-west of Judah, towards the country of the Philistines, was the tribe of Dan, from which arose Samson, the great opponent of that nation. Further northward on the ridge was Benjamin, the tribe of Saul, which commanded the passes that led, on the one side from the Jordan up to Bethel, and on the other by Beth-horon and Ajalon into Philistia. Then followed Ephraim, Joshua's tribe, in the territory of which Samaria was situated; and on the extremity of the ridge, overlooking the plain of Jezreel, the half tribe of Manasseh, descended from Joseph's other son. When the wandering Midianitish tribes overran that plain, it was from this tribe that Gideon was raised up as a deliverer. The plain itself was possessed by Issachar, who fulfilled Jacob's prophecy, that like "a strong ass couching between two burdens," he should become a servant to tribute for the sake of the pleasantness of the land. Owing to its position, the plain of Jezreel has been in all ages the great battle-field of Palestine. The northern territory was occupied by the three tribes of Zebulon, Naphtali, and Asher, which from their outlying position were the first to be carried into captivity. Of these, Zebulon lay between the Sea of Galilee and the Mediterranean, Naphtali still more remote towards the sources of the Jordan, while Asher (to use the words of Deborah's song) "abode in his creeks," being the only one of the tribes which lay along the seashore. The land on the further side of the Jordan was chosen by the two and half tribes, as being suited for flocks, they being pastoral tribes. The half tribe of Manasseh settled in the forest land of Bashan, Gad in the uplands of Gilead, and Reuben further south, where, like Simeon, they gradually disappeared.

9. Subsequent Divisions of Palestine.—At

the time of the Gospel history, we find Palestine consisting of three divisions, Judæa, Samaria, and Galilee, Samaria being intermediate between the other two. The territory on the other side of Jordan bore the name of Peræa, or "the land beyond." Of the towns most frequently mentioned in the Gospel narrative, Bethlehem lay to the south of Jerusalem, Bethany to the east of the Mount of Olives, Jericho on the western side of the Jordan valley, near where that river enters the Dead Sea, Nazareth on the hills to the north of the plain of Esdraelon, and Tiberias, Bethsaida, and Capernaum on the western shore of the Sea of Galilee. When regarded as a Roman province, its capital was Cæsarea Stratonis, on the coast south of Carmel, as Antioch was the capital of the province of Syria. Thus it was that St. Paul was taken to Cæsarea for trial, that being the residence of the Roman procurator, whereas the officer in charge at Jerusalem, called in Scripture "the chief captain," was only a military tribune. A good deal of confusion is introduced into the divisions of the different districts at this period by the Roman custom of encouraging the formation of native kingdoms from time to time. Such was the kingdom of Herod the Great in Judæa, and also the tetrarchies, into which his dominions were distributed between his sons. Again, in St. Paul's time, while a portion of this territory, varying in extent, was ruled in succession by the two kings called Herod Agrippa, and other portions by Roman procurators, Damascus was in the possession of Aretas, the king of Arabia. Similar kingdoms have already been noticed in Sophene and Commagene, in the north of Syria. We must not suppose, however, that these states were really independent of Rome; and the object the Romans had in view in permitting them to exist was to render these outlying parts of their empire more tranquil through native influence, and to secure a more regular payment of their revenues.

10. **Jerusalem.**—The site of Jerusalem at once determined it as the most commanding spot in the Promised Land. It was beyond all others a mountain city. Though surrounded by mountains, so that it could truly be said, "the hills stand about Jerusalem," it was itself 2,000 feet above the sea, on the edge of a table-land, which slopes on the one side towards the Jordan, on the other towards the Mediterranean. On three sides it is surrounded by deep valleys, which form, as it were, a natural trench around it—on the west and south by the valley of Hinnom, on the east by that of Jehoshaphat, in which flowed the brook Kedron. From these, especially on the south side, the rocks rose precipitously; but towards the north the access was more easy, and from this side it was attacked in the final siege under Titus. Jerusalem was composed of three quarters—the Upper, the Lower, and the New City—defended by separate walls, which had to be stormed successively by the Romans in that siege. The first of these quarters, which lay towards the south, overlooking the valley of Hinnom, was the lofty citadel of the Jebusites, which so long defied the Israelites, and after its capture was known as Zion, or the City of David. Beyond this to the north was the Lower City, or Acra, which, as its name implies, was also a conspicuous eminence. When Tacitus in his description of Jerusalem speaks of "*duos colles immensum editos*" (*Hist.* v. 11), he refers to this and Zion. From the eastern side of this, though separated from it by a ravine, and inferior in elevation, Mount Moriah projected towards the valley of Jehoshaphat, facing the Mount of Olives, which was on the opposite side of Kedron. Moriah was occupied by the temple area, the courts of which rose one within the other, until the whole was crowned by the Temple itself. The Roman fortress, which in the classical writers is called the *Turris Antonia*, and in the Acts of the Apostles "the castle," was built in a precipitous



position at the north-west angle of this area. Between Zion and Moriah intervened the valley of Tyropœon, or the Cheesemakers, at the mouth of which was the Pool of Siloam. These divisions composed the original city of Jerusalem, but as time went on, when the population became too large for these limits, a part of the more level land towards the north was enclosed, and this was called the New City, or Bezetha.

CHAPTER IV.

ARABIA, ÆGYPT, AFRICA.

i. Arabia : Sinai.—The great country of Arabia, the area of which is hardly less than that of all the countries of Asia which we have considered, west of India, has been compared in respect of its shape to a hatchet, the edge of which is surrounded by the Erythræan Sea. The interior is a vast plateau, several thousand feet above the sea, and thus forms a link between the highlands of Iran and those of northern Africa; and the correspondence between the countries on either side of it is further increased by both of them being separated from it by a deep depression—to the east by that of the Euphrates valley and the Persian Gulf, to the west by the Nile and the Red Sea. The whole of this elevated area is a sandy desert, only here and there relieved by oases of verdure in the neighbourhood of the springs; along considerable portions of the sea-coast, however, there is a belt of vegetation, especially in the south-west corner, the country of the Sabæans, which was famous for its spices, the chief export of Arabia. To this part, on account of its fertility, was originally given the name of Arabia Felix, which was afterwards applied to the whole country south of a line drawn from the head of the Arabian to that of the Persian Gulf. Of the other divisions, the northern part

between Palestine and the Euphrates was called Arabia Deserta, while that which extended from the peninsula of Sinai to Petra on the southern border of the Holy Land, was called from that city Arabia Petraea (*ἡ κατὰ τὴν Πέτραν Ἀραβία*). The Sinaitic peninsula occupied the angle formed by the two gulfs at the head of the Red Sea (p. 7). The northern and wider part of this was the desert of the wanderings of the Children of Israel; the southern part was a knot of massive granite mountains, and in the heart of these, where lofty peaks overlook a plain of somewhat more than a mile in length (Wady Musa), is the traditional position of Mount Horeb, and the scene of the giving of the Law.

2. *Ægypt: the Nile Valley*.—Herodotus calls *Ægypt* emphatically “a gift of the Nile,” and this is true, not only of its southern portion, but also of the Delta, which must originally have been a bay of the sea, lying in a depression between the Libyan and Arabian deserts, until it was filled up by the rich alluvium of that river. Consequently, in giving an account of *Ægypt*, we have to study the geography of the Nile valley. In the upper part of its course the great stream consists of two branches, of which the eastern is now called the Blue, the western and most important the White, Nile: near the junction of these in ancient times stood the town of Meroë, in modern that of Khartoum. From this point to its mouth, its course may be divided into three parts: (1) from Meroë to Syëne; (2) Upper *Ægypt*, from Syene to Cercasōrum; (3) Lower *Ægypt*, or the Delta, from Cercasorum to the sea. The first of these divisions was in the land of *Æthiopia*, and may be called the region of the cataracts; which, however, must not be conceived of as cascades or waterfalls, but as rocky rapids, which can be shot by boats. As the Nile forms a natural highway of traffic, the products of *Æthiopia* were from early times brought down into

Ægypt. At Syene, which is 500 miles from the sea, the cataracts cease, and Upper Ægypt begins. This country is a long rockbound valley, widening gradually, but very gradually, as it advances northwards, the breadth being on the average seven, but nowhere exceeding eleven miles. The intervening space is mainly occupied by the river and the soil which it has deposited. Another peculiarity that we should notice, as distinguishing the Nile from all other rivers, is that in the whole of this long course it does not receive a single tributary. The great city of this district was Thebes, the ruins of which are the most famous in all Ægypt. At Cercasorum, where the stream of the Nile begins to divide, Lower Ægypt begins; though the city of Memphis, somewhat higher up the stream, might perhaps more rightly be taken as the point of demarcation between the two territories. The importance of that place arose from its central position, and to the same cause is to be attributed the greatness of the modern Cairo, which lies close by, on the opposite bank of the stream. Not far from Memphis was the Lake Mœris, beyond the mountains on the western side of the valley.

3. **The Delta.**—Lower Ægypt was in shape an equilateral triangle, and was called by the Greeks the Delta, from its resemblance to that letter. The whole area was an unbroken level of black soil, the deposit of the Nile, whence the inhabitants called the land Chemi ("black"): in the spring this is covered with the richest vegetation, thus justifying Virgil's epithets in the line—

"*Et viridem Ægyptum nigra secundat arena.*"

This effect was largely produced by the yearly inundation, which arose from the moisture, with which the north winds from the Mediterranean were charged, being precipitated when they reached the mountains of Æthiopia, thus swelling the upper

tributaries, and causing the Nile itself to flood. The inundation continued from the beginning of July to the end of November, attaining its maximum in September. Herodotus compares the towns and villages at that season, as they stood out of the water, to the islands which rise out of the Ægean Sea. The Delta was at all times intersected by the arms of the Nile, which was commonly described as entering the sea by seven mouths. Of these the most important were: on the eastern side the Pelusiatic branch, on the upper part of which were situated the important cities of On or Heliopolis, and Bubastis; in the centre the Sebennytic branch, which, from its flowing straight onward, had the strongest claim to be the true representative of the Nile; and to the west the Canopic, on which lay the ancient city of Sais, and Naucratis, the trading town which the Greeks were allowed to establish in the country. This last branch was connected by a canal with the Lake Mareotis, which lay close to the coast; and on one part of the narrow belt that separated this lake from the sea was built Alexandria, in front of which was the Island of Pharos with its famous lighthouse. The position of this city was worthy of its great founder, Alexander, who saw that it was the most central point to command the three continents.

4. Effect of the Nile on the Ægyptians.—The great river which watered the country is the key to its history as well as its geography. Its fertilizing power was the cause of the early civilisation, as the abundance of food caused the population to multiply (see p. 15). But at the same time it had a depressing effect on the character of the inhabitants, as is always the case when a people is wholly dependent on one great natural feature. Besides this, the fact that the country was self-sufficing prevented there being any stimulus to commerce, so that no new ideas were imported from abroad; for the Greeks did not settle

there till a comparatively late period, and their numbers were too small to influence the mass of the population; with these circumstances, and in so uniform a country, it was impossible for independence of thought and action to arise, and the government was almost necessarily a despotism. To the same cause we may refer the permanence of traditional institutions, such as castes, and, what was more natural still, the worship of the Nile as a divinity.

5. Africa ; Oases ; Cyrene.—Of the great continent of Africa, exclusive of Ægypt (or Libya, as the Greeks called it), only the northern part requires our attention, as the remainder was practically unknown to the ancients. The habitable portion of this may be described as rising in a succession of terraces from the Mediterranean to the great central desert, the Sahara, and the region bordering on the shore was often extremely fertile. The desert itself was barren, except where at long intervals oases were formed by the surface-water collecting in depressions of the ground. The northern coast of Africa has already been partly described in connection with the formation of the Mediterranean (p. 10). From Ægypt it extends westward as far as the Cyrenaica, then forms a broad but shallow gulf, at the two angles of which are the Syrtes; and after approaching nearest to Europe at the *Mercurii Promontorium* (Cape Bon), follows a nearly direct course to the Straits. In the eastern portion Cyrene occupies by far the most important position, and its colonists, from the Island of Thera, in the Ægean, were well rewarded for their adventurous journey. It was the nearest point to Greece; it was placed on a terrace of land, about ten miles from the shore, and was both sheltered from the parching blasts of the Sahara and open to the cool breezes of the sea; and it was provided with a perennial spring of water in the midst of the richest vegetation. From it proceeded several neighbouring colonies, of which

Barca, situated a little to the west, was the most important.

6. **Carthage.**—But the place which was best fitted by nature for an extensive dominion was Carthage. This city, as it lay in the recesses of a bay to the west of the Mercurii Promontorium, was at once sheltered in its position, and commanded both the eastern and western basin of the Mediterranean : and as it faced Italy—“*Italiam contra*,” as Virgil says—with Sicily close at hand to act as a stepping-stone, it held a vantage-ground both for conquest and for commerce. Thus it was that the Phœnician colonies in Sicily, of which Panormus (Palermo) was the chief, passed into their hands ; and had they not been defeated by Gelo at the battle of Himëra, which was said to have been fought on the same day as Salamis, Carthage, and not Rome, might have been the great western power. Thus too it was that they colonized Sardinia, Corsica, the Balearic Islands, and the coast of Spain, where they reproduced themselves in Carthago Nova. The city occupied a peninsula, joined to the land by an isthmus two-and-a-half miles wide, on the south side of which was the harbour, now the port of Tunis, which received their immense navies. The original citadel was called by the Semitic name of Bozra (“fortress”), which the Greeks rendered by Byrsa ; and as this word signifies “a hide,” the legend grew up, that in purchasing the land the settlers had obtained as much as they could enclose by a bull’s hide cut in strips—“*Taurino quantum possent circumdare tergo*.” The district in the neighbourhood of Carthage, reaching from the lesser Syrtis to the northern coast, formed at a later period the Roman province of Africa, and, like Ægypt, from its great productiveness was one of the granaries of Rome ; and so greatly did that capital depend on those countries for its corn, that we hear in the Imperial times of its being in danger of starvation

when the supplies from one or other of those countries were cut off. Its other principal city, situated to the west of Carthage, was Utica, famous for its defence by Cato.

7. **Numidia ; Mauretania.**—The coastland west of the province of Africa was divided between two countries, Numidia and Mauretania, which were separated from one another by the River Ampsaga. The former of these, which forms a considerable part of the modern Algeria, is familiar to us in Roman history in connection with its princes Masinissa, Jugurtha, and Juba. The name of its inhabitants, Numidæ, which is only another form of the Greek Νομάδες, signifies that they, like the Gætûli, who lay to the south of them, and the Garamantes, still further inland, were wandering tribes—the "*armentarius Afer*" of Virgil. From these the Carthaginians obtained their light horse, who rode without saddle or bridle ("*infrenati*"), in like manner as they obtained their slingers from the Balearic Islands. The much more extensive territory of Mauretania, the country of the Mauri or Moors, reaching for some distance along the shore of the Atlantic, was bounded on the south by the Atlas Mountains, which are often spoken of in the poets as a single peak, but in reality formed an extensive chain, rising in places nearly 13,000 feet above the sea. When it was reduced to a Roman province, its eastern half was called Cæsariensis, its western half Tingitana.

CHAPTER V.

ASIA MINOR, THRACE, MACEDONIA.

1. **Hellespont ; Propontis ; Bosporus.**—The countries which next call for our attention are those that lie in the neighbourhood of Greece, bordering on the Ægean. But before we speak of these it may

be well to consider the great sea that lies to the north of Asia Minor, and the other pieces of water that are connected with it. If we leave the *Ægean* by the passage near its north-east corner, between the Thracian Chersonese and the Plains of Troy, we enter the Hellespont (Dardanelles), a winding strait, forty miles in length and from one to three miles broad—a slight and singular boundary of two great continents. It resembles a river, and was probably regarded as such by the ancients, for Homer calls it “broad” (*πλατὺς Ἑλλήσποντος*), and this epithet could only be applied to it from that point of view. It was about the middle of its course that the bridges by which Xerxes spanned it were thrown across, from Abȳdos on the Asiatic, to a point between Sestos and Madȳtus on the European shore. Higher up than this, on the Thracian side, was *Ægospotami*, off which the Athenians suffered the great naval defeat which terminated the Peloponnesian war. Just above Lam-psăcus, the last town on the Asiatic side, we enter the Propontis (Sea of Marmora), a land-locked expanse of water, the southern side of which is diversified by numerous islands, bays, and promontories. Again, at the north-eastern extremity of this, a similar, though narrower, strait, the Bosphorus, seventeen miles long and on an average half a mile wide, affords a passage into the Euxine. Both here and in the Hellespont there is a strong outward current from that sea, owing to the large number of great rivers which drain into it. At the exit of the Bosphorus into the Propontis, two cities, both colonies of Megara, stood opposite one another—Chalcēdon in Asia, and Byzantium in Europe. Chalcedon was the first to be founded, but the position of Byzantium was so superior, that the Delphic oracle was said, in directing its colonists in the choice of a site, to have told them to build their city opposite the “land of the blind,” in reference to the want of judgment shown by the people of



Chalcedon. It is perhaps the finest position in the world, commanding as it does two continents and two seas, washed on three sides by the water, from which it rises in swelling hills, and provided with a safe and deep port, seven miles in length, in the Golden Horn. This Constantine the Great saw when he chose it for the site of his great metropolis, Constantinople. At the entrance of the Bosphorus from the Euxine were two small islands near the opposite coasts, called the Cyaneæ from their dark colour; these were also named Symplegades, because, according to the fable, they were supposed to clash together and crush the ships that passed between them.

2. **Euxine Sea and Palus Mæotis.**—The Pontus Euxinus was originally called *Ἄστερος*, or “The Inhospitable,” because of its stormy character, and this title was afterwards changed by one of those euphemisms of which the Greeks were so fond. Its southern boundary was formed by Asia Minor; to the extreme east lay Colchis, to the north of which the line of the Caucasus for some distance skirted the shore; to the west was Thrace and the regions of the Hister (Danube); to the north the steppes of Southern Russia with the vast rivers that intersect them—next to the Danube the Tyras (Dneister), then the Hypānis (Bog), and lastly the Borysthēnes (Dnieper). The furthest piece of water in the system of the Euxine was the Palus Mæotis (Sea of Azov), a large expanse of almost fresh water, into which drains the stream of the Tanais (Don). Between this and the Euxine lay the Tauric Chersonese (Crimea), joined to the mainland by a narrow isthmus; and just where the two seas are connected with one another by the Cimmerian Bosphorus, on the European shore stood the town of Panticapæum (Kertch), which was the capital of the Greek kingdom of Bosphorus, which continued to exist in these parts for several centuries. This place, like

most of the Greek colonies that studded the shores of the Euxine, was founded from Miletus; and it commanded an extensive trade with the interior, and did much towards supplying Greece with corn, and with the Scythian slaves, who are frequently mentioned by Aristophanes. Still more important was the great *ἀρπὸν* of Olbia, near the mouth of the Hypanis.

3. **Asia Minor: General Features.**—The oblong space of ground called Asia Minor, projecting as it does from the continent of Asia, and bounded on three sides by the sea, while the fourth abuts against the mountains of Armenia, formed a natural link between Asia and Europe. By it the principal tribes who inhabited the peninsulas of Greece and Italy, migrated from their original homes in Iran (p. 17), and we shall see, in examining its physical geography, that it partakes of the features of both continents, for while the interior is thoroughly Asiatic in its table-lands, the west coast, where it borders on the *Ægean*, has all the peculiarities which characterise Greece. At its eastern extremity it forms a plateau of nearly 4,000 feet in height, and though this gradually slopes towards the west, yet it is still 2,000 feet high, when it begins to sink towards the *Ægean*. But its shores in that direction, like those of Greece, are broken up into innumerable bays and harbours, separated from one another by small promontories, and fringed with islands; whence they became a favourite place of settlement for Greek colonists. On the northern and southern sides also the central table-land approaches remarkably near to the sea, from which the ground rises to it with great rapidity. The two mountain chains which bound it are, on the north, the successive ranges which, under the name of Olympus, pass through Pontus, Galatia, Bithynia, and Mysia; on the south, the Taurus range in Cilicia and Pisidia. The principal rivers find their way into the Euxine. Of these, the Sangarius, to the west,

flows through Galatia and Bithynia ; to the east the Lycus, rising near the coast south of Trapezus, waters the kingdom of Pontus, and joins the Iris before reaching the sea ; while between these is by far the most important stream, the Halys, which almost encloses the Lycus and Iris in the great arc which it describes. In the time of Croesus this river formed the boundary between the Lydian and Persian dominions, whence arose the significance of the saying of the Delphic oracle, that "if Croesus crossed the Halys he would destroy a great kingdom." The fertile valleys which descend to the Ægean were enriched by four streams, the Caicus, Hermus, Cayster, and Mæander, which formed an additional attraction to the Greek colonists.

4. Divisions of Asia Minor.—If the student requires a *memoria technica*, by which to remember the various provinces into which this country is somewhat elaborately divided, he may find it in the curiously tripartite arrangement into which they fall. It is composed of twelve provinces : three to the north, Bithynia, Paphlagonia, and Pontus ; three to the south, Lycia, Pamphylia, and Cilicia ; three in the centre, Phrygia, Galatia, and Cappadocia ; three to the west, Mysia, Lydia, and Caria ; while the sea-coast of these three last countries is occupied by three groups of Greek colonies, Æolian, Ionian, and Dorian ; and three large islands lie off it, Lesbos, Chios, and Samos. This arrangement, however, is merely artificial ; and it should especially be borne in mind, that at the flourishing period of Greek history, two of these provinces, Pontus and Galatia, did not exist at all ; for the kingdom of Pontus was not established till 363 B.C., from which time it lasted exactly 300 years, under successive sovereigns, usually called Mithridates, until it was destroyed by Pompey in B.C. 63 ; and the name of Galatia was given, at a still later period, when a Gaulish tribe (Γαλάται), of the same race

as those who sacked Rome and attacked Delphi, having migrated from the west, and having been called in by Nicomedes I., king of Bithynia, settled in the country between the Sangarius and the Halys, about 250 B.C. The chief city of Pontus was Amasia, the birthplace of the geographer Strabo, situated on the banks of the Iris, where the tombs of the kings of that country remain to the present day; but from a commercial point of view the Greek colony of Trapezus, on the sea-coast, was far more important, as a large part of the trade of Upper Asia passed through it to the west. In Galatia the most famous place was Ancyra (Angora), where is a temple of Augustus, with the celebrated inscription recording the actions of that emperor.

5. Northern and Central Provinces.—The outline of the northern coast rises from the two sides to a sort of hump in the middle; this hump is Paphlagonia, which is separated from Pontus by the Halys, and from Bithynia by the Parthenius. On a headland, near its northernmost promontory, lay Sinöpe, the most important of all the colonies on the Euxine; and further to the west was Amastris, famous for its boxwood forests, which grew on Mount Cytörus. From the frontier of Paphlagonia the territory of Bithynia reaches as far west as the Rhyndäcus, which flows into the Propontis. It was in the neighbourhood of that sea that the principal Bithynian cities were situated, viz., Nicomedia, at the head of the deep gulf of Astäcus, founded by Nicomedes I., king of Bithynia; Nicæa, on the Lake Ascanius, famous as the seat of the first Council of the Christian Church; and Prusa (Brusa), situated at the foot of the Bithynian Olympus, the snowy summits of which are visible from Constantinople. On the coast of the Euxine lay the considerable town of Heraclea Pontica. Of the central table-land of Asia Minor, the eastern part was Cappadocia, the western, Phrygia; but both these

countries at one time represented a wider area, for, before the kingdom of Pontus was formed, Cappadocia extended to the Euxine, and the territory occupied by the Galatæ originally belonged to Phrygia. Both in ancient and modern times, Phrygia has been celebrated for its wool ; but to the Greeks it was best known as the original home of the mysterious rites of Cybele, which exercised a great influence upon them.

6. Southern Provinces.—The southern provinces were of necessity narrow strips of land, being hemmed in between the Taurus and the Mediterranean. The easternmost of these was Cilicia, a country of great importance, as commanding the passage from Asia Minor into Syria. The pass which led into it from the interior through the Taurus was called the Ciliciæ Pylæ, a narrow defile amid rugged mountains, which descended into the plain some way above Tarsus. The other pass, which led round the head of the Gulf of Issus into Syria under the Mons Amānus, was called the Syriæ or Amanides Pylæ (see p. 32). It was by this way that the younger Cyrus led his army into Upper Asia. Cilicia, from its sheltered position and southern aspect, was almost tropical in its vegetation. Its chief city was Tarsus, St. Paul's birthplace, on the banks of the Cydnus. Opposite to the coast of Cilicia lay the island of Cyprus, which forms in shape a rude oval, but at its north-east extremity throws off a long finger, which seems to point towards the Gulf of Issus. On its eastern coast lay the town of Salamis, on the western that of Paphos, famous for the worship of Aphrodite ; to the south those of Amāthus and Citium. To the west of Cilicia, in the recesses of a considerable bay, was Pamphylia, the inland and mountainous district of which was called Pisidia ; further inland still, beyond the Taurus, was the upland region of Lycaonia. The chief cities of these countries may be traced by following the footsteps of St. Paul

on his first missionary journey, who, landing at Attaleia, went up to Perga in Pamphylia, and Antioch in Pisidia, whence he proceeded to Iconium, Lystra, Derbe, cities of Lycaonia. The small district of Lycia, which projects into the sea beyond Pamphylia, though but little known to fame, must have been exceedingly opulent, for it was crowded with cities, of which Telmissus, Xanthus, Patāra, and Myra are the most familiar. Amongst its numerous mountains, Mount Cragus was the most celebrated, on account of its extensive forests.

7. **Western Provinces.**—The north-western angle of Asia Minor was occupied by Mysia, which bordered both on the Propontis and the Ægean, and was bounded on the east by the Rhyndācus, and on the south by the mountains that separate the valley of the Caicus from that of the Hermus. Its western coast was indented by the deep bay of Adramyttium, on the northern side of which rises the picturesque wooded chain of Ida. In a large cavern in the recesses of this mountain rose the Scamander (Mendēre), and the district through which this river flows to the Hellespont was known as the Troad; but the plain of Troy itself was the lower part towards the sea, where the river, issuing from a narrow valley, intersects a plain seven miles in length, flanked on both sides by low hills. Where these abut on the Hellespont, two capes are formed, the eastern of which was called the Rhoeteian, the western the Sigæan, from the town of Sigæum, which was built upon it. Off the western coast lay the Island of Tenēdos. The position of the city of Troy is not certainly known. The most important Mysian town on the Propontis was Cyzicus, which occupied the neck of an extensive peninsula. At no great distance from this flowed the Granicus, on the banks of which Alexander the Great obtained his first great victory over the Persians. To the south, in the neighbour-

hood of the Caicus, was Pergămus, where for some time a kingdom existed after the period of Alexander the Great. Southward from this as far as Mount Messôgis, and including the rich valleys of the Hermus and Cayster, extended the country of Lydia, which for several centuries was the seat of a great empire, embracing a considerable part of Asia Minor. Its chief mountains were Tmolus in the interior, and Sipylus towards the sea-coast; on a precipice in Sipylus the ancient figure of Niobe still remains, which is mentioned by Homer. The capital, Sardis, was situated at the northern foot of Mount Tmolus, on the Pactolus, a tributary of the Hermus. The gold-bearing sands of that stream were probably fabulous, but gold was found in that country, and the most ancient gold coins come from thence. The interval between Lydia and Lycia was occupied by Caria, the most famous part of which was the valley of the Mæander, and the fertility of this was caused by the many windings of that river. Its principal tributary was the Marsyas, flowing from the south, between which and the sea was Mount Latmos, which is associated with the story of Endymion. Of the Seven Churches of Asia which are mentioned in the Book of Revelations, Laodicea lay on the upper waters of the Mæander; Ephesus near, and Smyrna upon, the sea-coast of Ionia; Sardis, Philadelphia, and Thyatira in Lydia; and Pergamus in Mysia. When Asia Minor became a part of the Roman Empire, the name of Asia (or Proconsular Asia) was restricted to the western provinces, just as we have seen the name Africa to be used in a similar restricted sense (p. 18). The head city of this district was Ephesus. The inhabitants of Asia Minor were mostly of the Indo-European race, and some were closely related to the Greeks and Romans, but it is probable that the Cilicians and some minor tribes were, at least in part, of Semitic origin (see p. 17).

8. Asiatic Greek Colonies: Æolis.—The

western sea-board of Asia Minor has been already described (p. 52) as broken up into innumerable bays and harbours, separated from one another by peninsulas and promontories of varied shape, and further diversified by neighbouring islands. The climate of this district was one of the finest in the world. Here a multitude of Greek colonies were planted, and soon rose to opulence by the cultivation of the fertile lands in their neighbourhood, and still more by trade with the peoples of the interior, whose products they exported to foreign parts. Consequently, art and literature had an earlier and more rapid development in these countries than elsewhere in Greece. Here the Homeric poems were composed; here Sappho and Alcæus sang, and Herodotus was born; here Thales and Anaxagoras studied philosophy, when these subjects were in their infancy in the mother country; here also the graceful Ionic style of architecture was invented. The name of *Æolis* was given to the coast of Mysia between the Gulf of Adramyttium and the town of Cumê beyond the Caicus; but the *Æolian* settlements really extended over a wider area, for Assos and Sigêum, further to the north, belonged to this race, as also did Lesbos, with its two chief cities of Methymna in the north, and Mitylène in the east. This island, like most of the larger islands, possessed a strip of land on the mainland opposite, which was called the *Peræa*. The *Arginusæ* Islands, off which the great battle was fought between the Athenians and Spartans, lay between the easternmost point of Lesbos and the coast.

9. *Ionia and Doris*.—The seaboard of Lydia and part of Caria was held by the Ionian colonies, of which (to name only the principal) the northernmost was Phocæa, hard by the *Æolian* Cume; then followed Smyrna, at the head of its deep bay; after which the coast projects towards Chios, and forms

the strange wide peninsula of Erythræ, in the northern portion of which rose the lofty Mount Mimas, the dread of sailors from its dangerous storms. Then it recedes by Teos and Lebédos to Ephesus on the Caicus, far-famed for its temple of Artemis, the largest in the ancient world; and advances again opposite Samos in the promontory of Mycæle, the scene of the engagement between the Greeks and Persians. Beyond this, on the south side of the bay into which the Mæander flows, was the great city of Milētus, with the Island of Lade in front of it; but so great has been the deposit of the river, that the bay is now filled up, and Lade is a hill in the middle of a level plain. These Ionian cities were at first twelve, and formed a Dodecapolis; but the number was afterwards increased to thirteen, when Smyrna, originally an Æolian colony, was captured by the Ionians. The place of meeting of this confederation was on the northern slope of Mount Mycale, and was called Panionium. At the south-west angle of Asia Minor, which is occupied by a number of narrow and strangely indented peninsulas, were stationed the Dorian colonies, six in number—Halicarnassus, Cos, Cnidos, and the three towns of the neighbouring island of Rhodes, Ialysus, Lindus, and Camirus. These formed a Hexapolis, which held its meetings at a temple of the Triopian Apollo, but after a time this became a Pentapolis, by the exclusion of Halicarnassus. Cnidos was situated at the extremity of the long Triopian promontory; but the most famous of these cities was Halicarnassus, which is well known for its mausoleum, the monument which Queen Artemisia erected in memory of her husband Mausolus.

10. *Thrace.*—The territory which was occupied by the countries of Thrace and Macedonia was bounded on the north by the chain of Hæmus, on the west by the Scardus, which formed the northern continuation of

Pindus, on the east by the Euxine, and on the south by the Propontis and Ægean Sea. The greater part of it was hilly and irregular, and it was intersected by several definite ranges of mountains, the chief of which was Rhodöpe. This chain separates from the Hæmus at right angles about the middle of the whole area, and runs southward at first, until it approaches the sea, when it takes an easterly direction; this bend is referred to by Virgil in the line,

“Quaque *redit* medium Rhodope porrecta sub axem.”

To the westward of this, and separated from it by the river Nestus, is Mount Pangæus, which also reaches the sea. Again, another chain branches off from Scardus towards the east, and when it approaches Pangæus, where its summits are highest, is called Orbêlus. The country is watered by four rivers, larger than any that are found in Greece, the westernmost of which, the Axios, flows into the Thermaic Gulf, while the three others, the Strymon, the Nestus, and the Hebrus, enter the Ægean between Chalcidice and the Thracian Chersonese. The largest of these is the Hebrus, which, with its tributaries, drains almost the whole of Thrace. The proper boundary between Thrace and Macedonia was the Strymon, but at a later period Macedonia encroached on its neighbour, so as to extend eastward of Philippi. The climate of Thrace was regarded by the Greeks as very severe, and that country was spoken of as the home of the north wind, Boreas. The forests near the coast furnished great quantities of timber, which were of importance to the Athenians for their ship-building. Thrace was also famous for its breed of horses, and for gold, which was found near Amphipolis, and elsewhere in the country. The principal colonies on the coast, besides Byzantium, which has been already described (p. 51), were Perinthus on the Propontis, and Mesambria, Abdëra, and Amphipolis on the Ægean. The last-named of

these places was originally called Ennea-Hodoi or the Nine Ways, and was surrounded on three sides by the Strymon, just where that river makes its exit from the Lake Cercinitis. Its port, at the mouth of that river, three miles distant, was called Eion. Further to the east, and nine miles from the sea, was Philippi, in the plain near which the battle was fought which decided the fate of the republican party at Rome; the port of Philippi was Neapolis, and at this place St. Paul landed when he went up to that city. Finally we must notice the curious narrow strip of ground between the Hellespont and the Ægean, called the Thracian Chersonese. This was occupied by Greek settlers, and to prevent the incursions of the Thracians a wall was built across its isthmus, which was less than five miles in breadth.

II. *Macedonia*.—The River Axios divides Macedonia into two parts, the eastern of which resembles the neighbouring country of Thrace in the irregularity of its surface; but in the western part, under the flanks of Mount Scardus, are a succession of rich upland plains. The most important of these was Pelagonia, one of the original seats of the Macedonian race; the southern part of this was called Lyncestis. From the head of the Thermaic Gulf to the foot of Mount Olympus a vast maritime plain extended, intersected by the streams of the Axios, the Lydias, and the Haliacmon; on the west this was bounded by the Bermian chain, and the portion in the neighbourhood of Olympus, as well as the sea-slopes of that mountain, formed Pieria, the original home of the Muses. The chief cities of Pieria were Pydna, where Perseus of Macedon was defeated by the Romans, and Dium. At the north-west angle of the plain, just where the passes from Lyncestis enter Lower Macedonia, stood the early capital, Edessa, in a beautiful position on a table of rock, adorned with numerous cascades. The importance of the site

arose from its commanding both the upper and the level country. These advantages were not enjoyed by the later capital, Pella, which occupied some low hills near an extensive marsh in the plain; its nearness to the sea appears to have been its only recommendation. The Roman metropolis, Thessalonica, originally Therma, lay in the innermost angle of the Thermaic Gulf, thus forming a natural point of transit for exports and imports. This city was the terminus of the *Via Egnatia*, the great Roman road which joined the Adriatic and the *Ægean*, starting from *Dyrrhachium*, on the former sea, and forming the main line of communication between the West and the East. This road was afterwards extended to *Byzantium*.

12. *Chalcidice*.—The greater part of the coast of Macedonia was occupied by the trident-shaped peninsula, called *Chalcidice* from its having been colonized by settlers from *Chalcis* in *Eubœa*. The easternmost of the three promontories that form the trident was that of *Acte*, at the extremity of which the peak of *Mount Athos* rose to the height of 6,400 feet; through its isthmus, which is about a mile and a half broad, the canal was dug which *Xerxes* intended for the passage of his fleet, in order to avoid the dangers of shipwreck on the rocks of *Athos*, which had destroyed the expedition of *Mardonius*. On the land side of the isthmus stood the city of *Acanthus*. Separated from *Acte* by the *Singitic Gulf*, was the promontory of *Sithonia*, with the town of *Torōne*; and still further to the west, beyond the *Toronaic Gulf*, was that of *Paleēne*, with *Mende* and *Sciōne* on its southern side, and at its isthmus the important *Corinthian colony* of *Potidæa*. Near this place, at the head of the gulf, was *Olynthus*. These Greek cities were a continual thorn in the side of the Macedonian monarchs, and caused them to take part against *Athens* during the *Peloponnesian War*. Beyond the mountains in the north of *Chalcidice* was the *Lake of Bolbe*.

CHAPTER VI.

NORTHERN GREECE.

I. General Characteristics of Greece, and Effect on the Greeks.—The country commonly called Greece, but by the Greeks themselves *Hellas*, properly begins with Thessaly. It was in many respects the most remarkably formed country of the ancient world, and this formation had a great influence on the character and history of its inhabitants. The remarks that have already been made on the characteristics of Europe (p. 14), as compared with the other two continents, can be applied with still greater force to Greece. No other country has so long a sea-board in proportion to its area, or so diversified an outline, or such innumerable bays and harbours. Again, though Greece is a very mountainous country, yet it is not, like Thrace, an irregular jumble of mountains; but the whole surface, whether highland or lowland, is delicately marked and carefully defined in small distinct districts. The effect of these peculiarities at once appears in the history. As the sea was everywhere in their neighbourhood, the Greeks were essentially a maritime people; and the separation of the country into areas of limited extent caused them to form a number of separate states without being combined into a united nation. And the character of the people was affected by the same influences. For the mountaineer is usually characterised by his patriotism and love of freedom, and the seafaring man, from his changeful and adventurous life, gains boldness and an aptitude for new ideas; and thus in the Greek, with whom both influences were present, these two elements of character were combined. At the same time the great variety of surface that the country presented, being diversified

by mountains, hills, valleys, and plains, and the consequent variety of occupation of the inhabitants, fostered that versatility for which the Greeks were famous; and the temperate climate and absence of objects of overwhelming magnitude were in accordance with that freedom from extravagance which was the secret of their taste. In the formation of a national character two elements must be present—one internal, the nature of the race, the other external, the conditions under which it is developed. Now, the reason why the Greeks were so remarkable a people, especially in respect of their intellect, was that they possessed these two elements, the race and the country, in great perfection, and that the one closely corresponded to the other. It should also be noticed how, in proportion as we advance southward, the peculiar features both of the country and the people, which we have noticed, become gradually more and more marked; for Thessaly and Epirus, which possessed the plainest seaboard and most unformed surface, had at the same time the least Hellenic population; in the central districts, intervening between these and the Isthmus of Corinth, there is a marked advance in both respects; but the culminating point is reached in the Peloponnese, where the most elaborate country and the most typical races are found.

2. Mountains of Northern and Central Greece.—Northern Greece is divided into two parts by a well-defined backbone, which, under the names of Scardus and Pindus, traverses the country from north to south. Scardus takes its rise far away to the north, beyond the plain of Pelagonia, and divides the upland levels of Western Macedonia from the rugged territory of Illyricum, extending as far south as Lyncestis. Here Pindus begins, and where it reaches the north-west angle of Thessaly, it rises conspicuously in Mount Lacmon, which forms the most important watershed

and starting-point of mountains in Northern Greece. From it the Aōus, the Arachthus, and the Achelōus flow to the western, the Haliacmon and Peneius to the eastern sea ; and at the same point the Ceraunian mountains diverge to the north-west, reaching to the Acro-Ceraunian promontory, opposite the heel of Italy, while to the east runs the Cambunian range, terminating in Mount Olympus, where it touches the Thermaic Gulf. Olympus is by far the highest mountain in the Greek peninsula, and reaches nearly 10,000 feet. South-eastward from it the coast is bounded by the lower, but still lofty, heights of Ossa and Pelion ; and this chain is continued through the rocky island of Eubœa, and beyond that by the northern Cyclades, Andros, Tenos, and Mycōnos. Southward of Mount Lacmon, Pindus divides Thessaly from Epirus, until at its southern extremity it throws up the lofty peak of Typhrestus (or Tymphrestus). At this point, near the head-waters of the Spercheius, a number of chains diverge—to the east, Othrys, which forms the southern boundary of Thessaly, and overhangs the valley of the Spercheius and the Maliac Gulf ; to the south-east the no less lofty Oeta, which runs parallel to it, enclosing the same district on the south ; and to the south-west the irregular ranges of Ætolia. But the most lineal descendant of Pindus is the succession of mountains which, under the famous names of Parnassus and Helicon, run through Phocis and Bœotia, and afterwards as Cithæron and Parnes divide the last-named country from Attica, while an offshoot from Cithæron, branching off towards the south, and skirting the Corinthian Gulf, forms the great mass of Geraneia, which blocks the approach to the isthmus. Again, from the end of Oeta a lower mountain range skirts the Euboic sea, passing through the Locrian territory and the east of Bœotia, until it meets the extremity of Parnes, and there throws up the lofty pyramid of Pentelicus ; after which it gradually descends towards

the promontory of Sunium, and is further continued in the islands of Ceos, Cythnos, Seriphos, and Siphnos. Thus it will be seen that Greece is defended by a series of ramparts, for Olympus, Othrys, Oeta, Cithæron, and Geraneia have successively to be passed before an invader can reach the Peloponnese. The mountains of Greece are sharply cut and beautifully formed; and the number of commanding summits is great, for though Olympus is the only one that rises above 8,000 feet, yet there are upwards of twenty-five in various parts of the country that are over 4,000, and many of these till late in the spring are deeply covered with snow.

3. Coast-line of Northern and Central Greece.—In tracing the shores of the Greek peninsula from Mount Olympus and the Acro-Ceraunian promontory to the Isthmus of Corinth, we have first to notice how the country is compressed into two waists, so to speak, in consequence of inlets penetrating from the two sides opposite one another into the interior. The first is formed by the Maliac and Ambracian gulfs about the parallel of Mount Typhrestus; the second by the Saronic and Corinthian gulfs, on either side of the Isthmus. The coast-line on both sides to the north of the first of these waists is comparatively unbroken, except where the Pagasæus Sinus forms a land-locked bay at the south-east angle of Thessaly. Further to the south the shore of the Ionian Sea, from the Ambracian Gulf as far as the straits at Rhium, though less uniform, possesses but few harbours; but on the eastern side the coast of Locris, Bœotia, and Attica is infinitely diversified, and its waters are protected by the natural breakwater of the Island of Eubœa. The same variety of outline is found in the Saronic Gulf, and on the northern shore of that of Corinth, the principal inlet of which is the Bay of Crissa, which leads up to Delphi. Thus in Central, and (as we shall see hereafter) in Southern Greece the mountains project into the sea, and the



sea advances far into the interior, so that the seaboard and the inland parts are combined into one, instead of forming two separate districts, as they do in most countries. It will also be seen that, while the western side of Greece, including the Peloponnese, is singularly destitute of good harbours, these are very numerous on the eastern side; and on this side it was that the principal maritime plains—those of Phthiotis, of Malis, of Athens, and of Argos—opened out on the sea. The result of this was that Greek colonization at an early period took an eastern and not a western direction; and this tendency was increased by the position of the islands, which formed chains across the *Ægean*, and naturally attracted the colonists towards the coast of Asia Minor.

4. Positions of Greek Cities.—One result of the hilly character of Greece was that its cities usually occupied elevated positions. The site which the Greeks chose by preference was the last spur of a mountain chain, which overlooked a plain or valley; here they were safe from attack, and had land close at hand to cultivate. The summits of such hills they surrounded with a wall of massive stones, carefully fitted together without mortar; and for this purpose the rocky surface supplied an abundant material. In many places, as notably at Athens, this citadel was the original city; afterwards, when the buildings extended down the slopes below, these formed the city, as distinguished from the stronghold, and were again surrounded by a wall of circuit. It was only in very rare instances that a city grew up, as Sparta did, without such an enclosure. The facility of defence which was thus provided introduced a settled order of things at an early period into the country; and the city life which it encouraged, with its busy discussions and conflicting interests, gave rise to a universal interest in politics, and fostered a democratic spirit. On the other hand, the existence of a citadel or Acropolis

above the town was a source of danger, because the person who was master of it could dictate to those below. Hence we find that the first act of a tyrant was always to seize the Acropolis.

5. **Thessaly.**—Thessaly, in the opinion of Herodotus, was originally an inland sea, before an outlet for the waters was formed through the Vale of Tempe, which, according to the fable, was made by Poseidon, who with his trident cleft the ground between Olympus and Ossa. This view is far from improbable, for the whole area is drained by the Peneius and its tributaries, which find an exit to the sea by that passage. The Peneius rises in Mount Lacmon in the north-west angle of the country, and describes a considerable arc in the middle of its course, where it receives the waters of the Enipeus, the Apidānus, the Onochōnus, and the Pamīsus, flowing from the south; and shortly before entering Tempe it is joined on the northern side by the Titaresius. On the opposite side, not far from this point, a periodical overflow takes place, and the surplus waters are carried first into the Lake Nessōnis, and thence into that of Boēbe, which lies close under the flanks of Mount Pelion. This lake has no outlet, for a watershed intervenes between it and the Gulf of Pagāsæ. The boundaries of Thessaly are formed by well-marked mountain-chains—Pindus on the west, Othrys on the south, Ossa and Pelion on the east, and the Cambunian mountains on the north. At the north-east angle Mount Olympus stands like a huge watch-tower, and dominates the whole. But it must not be supposed that the entire surface of the country is one unbroken level, for it is intersected by several lines of hills, the most marked of which are those which project both from the north and south in the direction of Larissa. The rich soil of Thessaly was a source of temptation to invaders, such as the Thessalians themselves, who migrated from Epirus and drove out the Boeotians, who before had occupied the

country. Owing to the same cause, the constitution of this district differed from what was found elsewhere in Greece, the land being possessed by a few wealthy families, such as the Aleuādæ of Larissa and the Scopādæ of Crannon, and tilled by a serf population. On the broad plains, also, the horses were reared which made Thessaly famous for its cavalry.

6. Divisions, Cities, and Passes of Thessaly.—Thessaly was composed of four divisions—Hestixotis, Thessaliotis, Pelasgiotis, and Phthiotis. Of these, Hestixotis occupied the north-western corner, about the upper waters of the Peneius, having for its chief city Tricca; Thessaliotis the south-western, and was drained by the affluents of that river. Here lay the town of Pharsalus, near which was the plain of Pharsalia, the scene of the celebrated battle between Cæsar and Pompey. Pelasgiotis, which lay towards the north-east, was politically the most important district, for it contained the leading cities, Larissa, on the Peneius, and further to the south, Crannon and Pheræ. Not far from the last-named place was Cynoscephalæ, famous as the scene of the defeat of the last Philip of Macedon by the Roman Consul Flamininus. The fourth division, Phthiotis, occupying, as it did, the southern slopes of Othrys and the neighbourhood of the Pagasæus Sinus, formed in several ways a separate country, for it was divided from the rest of Thessaly by mountains or watersheds, and opened on the sea. Thucydides tells us that it was the early home of the Hellenic race. It was famed in ancient story as the native land of the great Achilles, and its land-locked sea appears to have been the cradle of Greek navigation. From it the Argonauts started on their adventurous voyage; in the forests of the neighbouring Pelion the pine was cut for their ship Argo, and on a rocky hill at the head of the gulf stood the city of Iolcos. Near this, on a projection of the coast, Demetrias

was built at a later period by Demetrius Poliorcetes, and as it commanded the approach to Thessaly, it was called by him one of the three fetters of Greece, Chalcis and Corinth being the other two. Of the outlying Thessalian tribes we may notice the Per-rhæbi in the north, about the course of the Titaresius, in the south-west the Dolôpes and Dryôpes about the roots of Pindus, and to the east the Magnêtes in the highlands of Ossa and Pelion. The most famous of the passes by which Thessaly could be entered was Tempe, a narrow winding ravine between four and five miles long, full of luxuriant vegetation along the banks of the Peneius, and thus realizing the descriptions of the poets, but bounded by rocky precipices which rendered it easy of defence. This, however, could be turned by another pass, that of Petra, on the western side of Olympus, which entered the plain to the north of Larissa. From Epirus there was a pass over Mount Lacmon by the valley of the Peneius, by which Julius Cæsar arrived before Pharsalia; from the Ambracian Gulf another led over Pindus near the town of Gomphi; and from the Maliac Gulf, Othrys was crossed by a pass called Coela, or "The Hollows."

7. *Illyricum and Epirus.*—Epirus, which lay on the opposite side of Pindus to Thessaly, formed a strong contrast to that country in respect of its surface, being a mass of mountains. Illyricum, from which it was separated by the Ceraunian chain, was also mountainous, and was intersected by several rivers, the principal of which was the Aôus. Near the coast there were occasional plains, and these formed the principal source of wealth to the neighbouring Greek colonies of Epidamnus and Apollonia. Epirus consisted of three districts, Chaonia, Molottis, and Thesprotia. Chaonia lay to the north-west, reaching as far south as the river Thyāmis; in this country, nearly opposite the north of Corcyra, was the city of Buthrôtum. Molottis formed the eastern part,

away from the sea, and contained a large lake called Pambōtis (Lake of Joannina). Thesprotia was the southern region, and had on its coast the small islands of Sybōta. The principal river was the Arachthus, which rises in Lacmon and flows southwards into the Ambracius Sinus (Gulf of Arta). Though this country was little known to the Greeks, it contained three features of the highest importance in Greek mythology,—the river Acheron, the sources of the Achelous, and the oracle of Dodōna. The Acheron flows through a deep gorge amid scenery fitted to inspire a feeling of awe, and when it emerges from this forms a marsh, the Palus Acherusia, before reaching the sea. The Achelous, which rises not far from the Arachthus, for some distance skirts the chain of Pindus until it enters Acarnania; it was known to the Greeks as the most ancient of rivers. The site of the oracle of Dodona is not certainly known, but it was probably in the neighbourhood of the Lake Pambotis. On the northern shore of the land-locked Ambracian Gulf was the district of Ambracia, with a town of the same name, situated on the Arachthus; and on the eastern side was Amphilochia, with a chief city, Argos. The tongue of land which guards the south side of the entrance of the bay was Actium, the scene of Augustus' great naval victory over Antony and Cleopatra.

8. **Acarnania and Ætolia.**—The coast of Greece to the south of Epirus belonged to Acarnania. The greater part of the area of this country also was mountainous, but it contained one important river, the Achelous, the fertilizing waters of which intersect it from north to south. In a rich plain near its banks in the centre of the district was Stratus, the chief city; and near its mouth lay Oeniādæ, a place of great strength, owing to the marshes in the midst of which it was situated. Off the coast, where it enters the sea, were the islands called the Echinādes, some of which had already in classical times been united to

the mainland by the deposit of the river. Eastward of Acarnania was Ætolia, which extended as far east as the entrance of the Gulf of Corinth. It possessed a river of some importance, the Evēnus, and a large lake called Trichōnis. Conspicuous among its numerous mountains was Mount Corax, opposite Mount Parnassus, and little inferior to it in elevation. The strait by which the gulf was entered, between the headland of Rhium on the Achaian, and Antirrhium on the Ætolian coast, was about a mile and a half in width.

CHAPTER VII.

CENTRAL GREECE.

1. **Malis.**—The part of Greece which we now approach possesses in fuller measure the features that we have seen to be most characteristic—finely-marked mountain-chains, distinct valleys and valley-plains, and a long and intricate sea-board—and at the same time a more thoroughly Hellenic population. On the southern side of Thessaly the wide valley of the Spercheius occupies the space between the parallel ranges of Othrys and Oeta, extending from the foot of Mount Typhrestus, where are the sources of that river, to the Maliac Gulf, which is in reality a continuation of the valley. The corner of this territory, which lies between the cliffs of Oeta and the sea, was called Malis, and was of great importance to Greece, because it contained the key of that country in the pass of Thermopylæ. The pass commenced just beyond the point where the Asōpus, issuing from a gorge on the south side, flowed into the sea; but at the present day the alluvium brought down by the Spercheius has carried the coast-line so much further out that the Asopus flows into the Spercheius, and a level plain extends below Thermopylæ. At the foot of the heights to the west of the Asopus stood the

city of Trachis, and somewhat higher up is the site of Heracleia, which the Spartans built as a garrison town during the Peloponnesian War. It was by the gorge of the Asopus that the detachment of the Persians under Hydarnes succeeded in reaching the high ground, or Anopæa, above the pass, and thus descending in the rear of the Greeks. The pass was formed by the sea washing the foot of the steep mountains, and was narrowest just beyond where the hot springs, which gave their name to the place, issued from the ground. Here it was that the Spartans under Leonidas made their final stand.

2. **Locris and Doris.**—At an early period the Locrian race extended from the Maliac to the Corinthian Gulf, but at the time of the migration of the Bœotians from Thessaly they were broken in two, so that in historic times they formed two separate tribes on the shores of the two seas. The rugged mountains which form a continuation of Mount Oeta along the Maliac Gulf bore the name of Cnemis, and were the seat of the Epicnemidian Locrians, through whose territory there was a pass of great importance between Thermopylæ and the plains of Phocis, which it entered at Elateia. Further to the east, overlooking the Euboic Sea, were the Opuntian Locrians; and between them and the Epicnemidians the Phocians possessed a part, called Daphnus, facing the Eubœan promontory of Cenæum, and the neighbouring Lichædes Islands. The other Locrian tribe, the Locri Ozolæ, occupied the triangular space between Ætolia and Phocis, the shores of which are washed by the Corinthian and Crissæan Gulfs. In the extreme west of their territory stood Naupactus, an important city with a good harbour, which commanded the entrance of the straits; in the extreme east, Amphissa, at the head of the plain which runs in from the Crissæan Gulf. From this place a pass leads over the mountains, through Doris, to the country of Malis and Northern Greece. The little territory of Doris, which

though it was at one time the seat of the Dorian race, only contained four towns, was an upland district between Parnassus and Oeta. It contained the head waters of the Cephissus, and was closely connected with Phocis by that river.

3. **Phocis.**—Phocis was enclosed by the Locri Ozolæ, Doris, the Locri Epicnemidii, Bœotia, and the Corinthian Gulf. It consisted of two dissimilar parts, the upper valley of the Cephissus and the mountain region of Parnassus. The former of these was a space of open ground in the midst of the mountains, interposing between Doris and Bœotia; the latter was almost entirely occupied by the great mountain itself and its buttresses, for Parnassus is the most massive of all the Greek mountains. It is separated from the Gulf of Corinth by Mount Cirphis, and in the deep valley between the two mountains ran the river Pleistus, which made its way into the Crissæan Gulf. This valley formed the line of the famous Σχίστη ὁδός, at the eastern end of which was the meeting of three roads, one leading to Delphi, one to Daulis, and one to Thebes. This was the Triodos, where Oedipus slew his father, Laius. On the southern side of Parnassus, facing Mount Cirphis, and overlooking the valley of the Pleistus, stood Delphi, at a height of 1,500 feet above the sea. From the head of the Crissæan Gulf, where lay the port of Cirrha, to the buttress of Parnassus, on which stood Crissa, the guardian city of Delphi, extended the Sacred Plain, which was forbidden to be cultivated. The violation of this rule was the cause of a Sacred War. Above the rocky slopes on which Delphi is placed there rise two precipitous faces of rock, which run together at an obtuse angle; close to their point of meeting, where a narrow chasm is formed, the fountain of Castalia rises, and then falls in steep cascades to join the Pleistus in the valley below. The precipices here described are the "twin peaks" of Parnassus,



frequently mentioned by the Greek poets, and should be carefully distinguished from the summit of that mountain, which rises to the height of nearly 8,000 feet, and is not two, but one. The Temple of Apollo stood in a conspicuous position, close to the foot of the western precipice. The seclusion of the place and its magnificent surroundings rendered it a fitting home for a great oracle.

4. *Bœotia*.—The area of Bœotia was greater than the combined area of all the countries that have been mentioned in this chapter; and it had the further advantage of bordering both on the eastern and western seas, and of lying on the highway of traffic between Phocis and Attica, and commanding the passage from Northern to Southern Greece. But all this seems to have been neutralized by the heavy atmosphere of its damp valleys, which caused the Bœotian to be known for his phlegmatic temperament, dull intellect, and rude manners. The interior of the country was enclosed by mountains on the four sides — towards Attica by Cithæron and Parnes; towards the Euboic Sea by a continuation of the Opuntian Mountains; towards the Corinthian Gulf by Helicon; and on the side of Phocis by spurs from the neighbouring mountains. Of these Helicon was the highest, and was far-famed as the abode of the Muses; the name of one of its offshoots, Mount Leibethrium, and of the fountains on its sides, Aganippe and Hippocrène, are associated with those divinities. The district thus enclosed was divided by intervening hills into two basins, the chief towns of which were Orchomēnus and Thebes respectively; consequently on these two the history of the country turns, for in the heroic age Orchomenus was the most important place in Bœotia, when it was ruled by the dynasty of the Minyæ, and at a later period Thebes. The westernmost of these basins was that which enclosed the Copæic lake, a large expanse of shallow water, which in summer was hardly more than a marsh, and

was famous for its eels. It was fed by the Cephissus, which, rising in Doris and flowing through the lowlands of Phocis, entered Bœotia by a defile near the city of Chæroneia. This pass was the most important entrance to the country, and in consequence of this the plain of Chæroneia has always been a great battle-field. The only outlet for the waters of the Copaic lake was through subterranean passages, either natural or artificial, which communicated with the Euboic Sea. The other large cities of this basin, besides Orchomenus and Chæroneia, were Lebadeia, Coroneia, and Haliartus. The other basin was less regular in its shape, and was drained for the most part by the Asôpus. This river rises not far from Thespiæ and Leuctra in the west of the country, and passing Tanagra and Oenophÿta, empties itself into the eastern sea. At no great distance to the west of its mouth was the temple and sacred enclosure of Delium. Half-way between the two seas, in a plain of its own, stood Thebes, the capital city, built on a low spur of ground, which projects northwards from the hills behind. On either side of it flow two clear streams, Dirce and Ismēnus, which join their waters in the plain. This copious supply of water, and the central position, were the chief recommendations of the site. The rival town of Platæa lay on the northern slopes of Cithæron, and consequently in close proximity to Attica, with which country it had such intimate political relations. The ground in front of it was the watershed of the country, from which the Asopus flowed in one direction, and the brook Oëroë in the other; this was the scene of the battle of Platæa and the movements that preceded it. On the side of Cithæron also, but further to the east, were the frontier towns of Hysia and Erythræ.

5. **Eubœa.**—The Island of Eubœa, from its position relatively to Bœotia, appears naturally to belong to that country. This was actually the case when, in

the course of the Peloponnesian War, the strait of the Euripus, at the narrowest point of the Euboic Sea, was spanned by a bridge. The Euripus is about 120 feet broad, and is divided in the middle by a rock. It has always been famous for its tides, which change many times in the day. The command of this strait was of great importance, for much of the trade from the north of the *Ægean* passed by this way towards Attica and the Peloponnese, to avoid the dangers of the open sea and the rocky eastern coast of the island. Hence the city, which was built on the Eubœan shore of the Euripus, Chalcis, early rose to eminence, as is shown by its colonies in Chalcidice. A few miles to the south of this was the second city of the island, Eretria; and nearly opposite, on an eminence on the Bœotian side, stood Aulis, from which the fleet of Agamemnon sailed. The whole of Eubœa is intersected by a rocky ridge, the continuation of the chain of Ossa and Pelion; this reaches its highest point in Mount Dirphe, behind Chalcis. On the northern coast, opposite the entrance of the Pagasæan Gulf, was Artemisium, the scene of the naval conflict between the Greeks and Persians; and at the southern end were the promontories of Caphæreus and Geræstus, greatly dreaded by sailors on account of their violent storms. Near the last-named cape, opposite Attica, was the town of Carystus.

6. Megaris and Attica: General Features.

—Between Bœotia and the Sarōnic Gulf, lay a triangular piece of ground, which was occupied by the districts of Megaris and Attica; originally, however, before the Dorian invasion, which resulted in the foundation of Megara, it was politically as well as physically one, being entirely in the hands of the Ionian race. From its outlying character, stretching as it does into the *Ægean*, it was especially fitted to hold intercourse with foreign countries, and to be the home of a great maritime power; and its light stony

soil contributed to this result, as the unremunerative nature of its agriculture turned the thoughts of its inhabitants towards the sea. The nearness of the sea caused its temperature to be the most equable in Greece, and in this respect it presented a striking contrast to its neighbour Bœotia, which suffered from extremes of heat and cold. The mountain barrier, which separated it from Bœotia, was formed by Cithæron on the west and Parnes on the east: near their point of junction was the pass of Phyle, which was occupied by Thrasybulus at the time of the Thirty Tyrants; this led into the head of the plain of Athens at Acharnæ. On either side of Phyle lay two other passes; one by Dryoscephalæ, from Plataea to Eleusis over Cithæron; and another by Deceleia, from Orôpus to Athens over Parnes. The entire area was divided into a succession of plains by spurs, which ran southwards at right angles to Cithæron and Parnes. The westernmost of these skirts the Corinthian Gulf and attaches itself to the great mass of Geraneia, which stretches from sea to sea in front of the Isthmus; the next forms the boundary between Megaris and Attica. The town of Megara was situated about a mile from the Saronic Gulf, on which it possessed the port of Nisæa, with the Island of Minôa in front of it, while on the Corinthian Gulf it had another port, Pegæ. Its position was the cause of its importance, for it commanded both seas, and the entrance into the Peloponnese. Of the passes that led from Megara into that country, one crossed the ridge of Geraneia, while the other skirted the Saronic Gulf under the dangerous precipices of the Scironian rocks.

7. **Description of Attica.**—Eastward from Megaris lay the plain of Eleusis, which was separated from that of Athens by the ridge of Ægaleos; the portion nearest to that mountain bore the special name of the Thriasian Plain. A depression in the ridge marked the point where the Sacred Way passed

from Athens to Eleusis. The site of that city was on the seashore at the head of the bay of Salamis, in front of which the island of that name was interposed from side to side. The scene of the famous battle was the strait between that island and the extremity of Ægaleos, and the last spur of that mountain was the "rocky brow," from which Xerxes overlooked it. In the middle of the strait lay the little island of Psyttaleia. The plain of Athens was flanked by Ægaleos and Hymettus, and extended from the foot of Parnes to the Saronic Gulf. On its eastern side, between four and five miles from the sea, was the site of Athens, marked by a group of low hills, to the north-east of which rises a more conspicuous peak, Mount Lycabettus. Two streams watered the plain—the Ilissus, flowing from Hymettus and skirting the east of the city, where it received the waters of the fountain Callirrhœ; and the Cephissus, a larger stream, which rose in Parnes and formed a long line of green vegetation between Athens and Ægaleos, where its waters were diverted for purposes of irrigation, and fertilized the groves of Colonus and the gardens of the Academy. The seashore of the plain was broken into a number of inlets, which formed the harbours of Athens. Towards the north-east the plain was bounded by the graceful peak of Pentelicus or Brilessus, in the sides of which were the quarries of white marble which furnished the material for the Athenian temples. Between this and Hymettus is an interval of two miles, which forms the entrance to the Mesogæa, an inland undulating plain, reaching nearly to Sunium; its chief town was Brauron. The promontory in which Hymettus terminates was called Zoster, and the strip of coast-land that reached from this to Sunium, and was separated from the Mesogæa by a line of lower mountains, was the district of the Paralia. At the north-eastern corner of Attica, facing Eubœa, was the little plain of Marathon, enclosed on three sides by

Parnes and Pentelicus, and on the fourth by the sea. It was from the slopes of Pentelicus that the Greeks descended at the time of the battle, while the Persians were drawn up on the sea-shore, and on the two sides were the marshes, which impeded the movement of their great host. The inhabitants of this region and the neighbouring mountains were the Diacrii or Hyperacrii, one of the three political parties in Attica; being poor mountaineers, they were the most disposed for change. The other two parties were the Pedieis, the rich occupants of the plains, who were naturally conservative, and the Paralî, whose interests were mercantile, and whose political views were moderate. It remains only to notice the district of Oropus, which geographically belonged to Bœotia, as it lay to the north of Parnes towards the Euboic Sea; but the Athenians kept a firm hand upon it, in order to maintain their communication with Eubœa.

8. **Athens.**—The most conspicuous among the hills of Athens was a rocky table with precipitous sides, nearly oval in shape, and level on the summit, on which stood the Acropolis. Its area was about 1,000 feet in length by 500 in breadth, and it rose about 350 feet above the plain. The Propylæa, or defensive works, through which it was approached on the western side, were masterpieces of architecture; and on the level summit stood—among other magnificent works of art—on the north side the colossal bronze statue of Athena Promachus, and the Ionic temple called the Erechtheium; on the south side the Parthenon. This place, as has already been remarked, (p. 67), was the original city, and was afterwards retained as a fortress and a sanctuary. The view from it embraced the whole plain of Athens and the neighbouring mountains, together with the Saronic Gulf, Ægina and the Argolic coast, and the Acrocorinth. The precipices on the north side of the Acropolis were called the Long Rocks (*Μακρὰί πέτραι*), and under-

neath these lay the Pelasgicum, which was regarded as an accursed spot of ground. Westward of the Acropolis, and separated from it by a deep depression, was a craggy knoll, the Areiopagus. The meetings of the famous court of that name were held on its summit, where stone benches are excavated in the rock, so as to form three sides of a square: these were reached by a flight of stone steps from below. The Areiopagus served as a link to connect the Acropolis with the other hills, which formed a line on the western side. The northernmost of these was the Hill of the Nymphs; next came the Hill of the Pnyx, and to the south the Museum. The Pnyx, which was the great meeting-place of the Athenians, faced the Propylæa, and consisted of a sloping area of ground capable of containing many thousand persons, at the top of which was a bema or tribune, supported on stone steps. The space enclosed between the Acropolis, the Areiopagus, and the Pnyx, is supposed by some to have been the Agora, though others believe that place to have been in the lower ground north of the Areiopagus. About and northward of the Hill of the Nymphs, was the quarter called Cerameicus. The great theatre of Dionysus, in which the plays of the Attic dramatists were performed, stood close to the south-eastern angle of the Acropolis, some of the rows of seats being excavated in the hill-side; it was capable of containing 20,000 persons. The sacred enclosure within which it lay was called the Lenæum. In early times the city spread itself on the southern side of the Acropolis, but at a later period it also covered the space towards the north, though it did not extend much more than half a mile in that direction.

9. **Harbours of Athens.**—On the sea-coast to the south-west of Athens there rises a mass of rocky ground, the Hill of Munychia, which formed the acropolis of the town of Piræus. Eastward of this stretched the open roadstead of Phalærum, while on the western side lay the closed harbour of Piræus.

This latter is nearly perfect of its kind, being deep, spacious, and landlocked, for a tongue of land called Eetioneia, projecting from the northern shore, almost closed its entrance. On the southern side of it was an inlet called Canthärus, which was reserved for vessels of war, the rest being devoted to the merchant navy. On the opposite side of the Piræic peninsula a small harbour called Zea penetrated into the land, and together with Canthärus nearly divided the peninsula in two. Between Zea and Phalerum a little bight in the Hill of Munychia formed the harbour of that name. The original Long Walls, which were planned by Themistocles, ran from Athens, the one to Piræus, the other to the eastern side of the bay of Phalerum. The third, which was added by the advice of Pericles, connected the eastern part of the fortifications of Piræus towards Munychia with the city.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PELOPONNESE AND THE ISLANDS.

I. The Peloponnese : Coast and Mountains.

—The Peloponnese, from its broad surface and deeply indented outline, may be compared to a leaf of the plane or maple-tree. But in respect of the variety of form in its coast a distinction must be drawn between different parts. The uniform appearance of its northern shore contrasts forcibly with the broken outline of the opposite side of the Corinthian Gulf. So, too, its western districts, like those of Northern Greece (see p. 67), are singularly devoid of harbours, the only one of any importance being that of Pylos in Messenia. The southern coast, on the other hand, with its triple promontories, and the deep Messenian and Laconian bays, reminds us of the trident of the peninsula of Chalcidice (p. 62); and the territory of Argolis is the most subdivided and most maritime of all. The mountains of the Peloponnese can best be



regarded as radiating from Arcadia, which is the high-land district of the country. The principal chain runs along the north of that region, separating it from Achaia, and rises to three conspicuous peaks, all over 7,000 feet high—Cyllêne in the east, Aroanius in the centre, and Erymanthus in the west. The other chief mountains run at right angles to this : on the east of Arcadia Artemisium and Parthenium, which are continued by Parnon through Laconia to the promontory of Malëa ; in the centre of the country Mænälus, which afterwards rises as Taygëtus to the height of nearly 8,000 feet between Laconia and Messenia, and extends to the extremity of Tænärum ; to the west a more irregular range, the highest point of which is Lycæum in south-western Arcadia, whence it is prolonged by hilly country to the headland of Acrítas. The mountains of Argolis form a separate chain, intersecting that district from Cyllene to Cape Scyllæum ; towards the north they form the Oneian range, which faces the Isthmus. Thus the Peloponnese more than any other part of Greece forms a distinct unity, the occupants of which could naturally combine for defensive purposes, but at the same time consists of separate provinces, incapable of permanently amalgamating with one another. From its peninsular and maritime character it was also the culminating point of the Greek continent, and (taken as a whole) it contained the most vigorous and most Hellenic nationalities. Finally, it was the keep of the fortress, in which a last stand could be made, when the outworks were taken.

2. *Corinthia*.—The Isthmus of Corinth was a space of undulating ground, reaching from Geraneia to the Oneian mountains, and from the Corinthian to the Saronic Gulf ; it was about three-and-a-half miles wide in its narrowest part. Its surface was sufficiently level for vessels to be dragged across it, and for this purpose a diolcos, or sort of roadway, was constructed. Nero attempted to cut a canal through it, and walls were built across it at various periods.

Towards the Saronic Gulf was situated the sanctuary of Poseidon, where the Isthmian games were held. The true line of defence of the approach to the Peloponnese was formed by the Oneian mountains, in front of which stood Corinth, with its towering citadel rock, the Acrocorinth. Hence that city was of the utmost importance for strategic purposes, while its commercial prosperity arose from its commanding the two seas. On these it possessed two ports—that of Lechæum on the Corinthian, and that of Cenchree on the Saronic Gulf. About nine miles to the north-west of Corinth, not far from the sea, stood Sicyon, a place of great political importance at an early period.

3. **Achaia.**—The coast-land from Sicyon to the promontory of Araxus beyond the entrance of the Corinthian Gulf formed the district of Achaia, which consisted, in fact, of the slopes between the Arcadian mountains and the Gulf of Corinth. This was a prosperous and fertile country, but did not become important till a late period in the history of Greece, for the want of harbours prevented it from becoming a maritime power. Its area was broken up by the spurs of the mountains running down to the sea, and thus dividing it into a number of small areas, intersected by numerous torrents. The result of this was, as in the similarly formed country of Phœnicia (p. 34), that its twelve cities were held together by forming a confederation; and this political union was the germ from which sprang the famous combination called the Achæan League. The principal cities of this were—inside the straits, Pellène, Ægæ, Ægium, and Helice; and outside, Patræ (Patras), above which rises the lofty Mount Panachaicus. It should be remembered, that when Roman writers speak of Achaia, they mean the province of that name, which included all Greece as far north as Mount Othrys, corresponding to the modern kingdom of Greece.

4. **Elis.**—The north-western angle of the Peloponnese was occupied by Elis. The country mainly com-

posed of river-valleys, and fringed along the shore by a belt of sand, from which projected the rocky headland of Chelonātas. It was divided into three portions—Hollow Elis, which was the vale of the Peneius, together with the slopes of Mount Erymanthus, from which it flows; Pisātis, the central portion, comprising the environs of the lower valley of the Alpheius, and separated from the former district by Mount Pholoë, an offshoot of Erymanthus; and Triphylia, a narrow strip of land between the mountains and the sea, reaching as far south as the confines of Messenia, from which country it was separated by the river Neda. The people of Elis had a port, called Cyllēne, in a little bight on the northern side of Cape Chelonatas; but by far the most important place in the country was Olympia, the scene of the great festival. This sacred spot lay in a wide and fertile valley, flanked by low hills, and watered by a long reach of the Alpheius; being only a few miles from the sea, it was a place of easy resort for visitors from the Greek colonies, as well as from the mainland; especially from Sicily, many natives of which island were celebrated by Pindar for their victories in the games. The temple of Zeus, together with the stadium and hippodrome, were situated on levels on the north side of the river, near where it is joined by the stream of the Cladeus. The prosperity of Elis greatly depended on the sacred character it enjoyed as the home of this Pan-Hellenic celebration.

5. **Messenia.**—Messenia, the district which lies south of Elis and west of Laconia, was the most fertile region in Greece, and enjoyed the softest and warmest climate. Hence arose its misfortunes, for the richness of its soil was a temptation to its Laconian neighbours, and its inhabitants did not possess the vigorous constitution necessary for a permanent resistance. It had an upper and a lower plain, bounded by mountains which run southwards from Mount Lycæum, on the one side to Cape Acritus, on the other towards the

flanks of Mount Taygetus : between the two plains intervened a narrow valley formed by two projecting spurs, that on the western side being Mount Ithōme. The upper plain, which is deeply sunk in the mountains, is that of Stenyclērus, and near its head stood the rocky eminence of Eira, the scene of the final death-struggle of the nation. Ithome, at the lower end, which was defended for ten years by Aristodemus, rose steeply to a broad summit, 2,600 feet above the sea. When the Messenians were restored to their country by Epaminondas, the city of Messene was built on the western side of this mountain. The lower plain extended from the foot of Ithome to the head of the Messenian Gulf, and was watered by the Pamisus. On the western coast of Messenia was situated the fine harbour of Pylos (Bay of Navarino), which was formed by an indentation of the coast, with the long and narrow island of Sphacteria stretching in front of it. To the north of Sphacteria, and separated from it by a narrow channel, was the rocky headland of Coryphasium or Pylos, lying between the sea and what is now a lagoon, but formerly was in all probability a sandy level. Sphacteria itself is somewhat less than three miles long, and rises very gradually from south to north ; at its northern extremity, opposite Pylos, where the final stand of the Spartans took place, it is from 400 to 500 feet high. In the centre of the island is a small level plain and source of water, and here must have been the main station of the Spartans. The distance from the southern end to the mainland is about three-quarters of a mile ; but a great change seems to have taken place in the land since ancient times, for Thucydides represents the interval as much less. Southward of Pylos on the coast was a smaller harbour, Methōne (Modon). On the other side of the promontory of Acritas was the town of Asīne, inhabited by Dryōpes, who migrated thither from Asine in Argolis.

6. **Laconia.**—The most important part of Laconia

was the valley of Sparta, a deep depression between Taygetus and Parnon, eighteen miles in length by four or five in breadth, and intersected by the Eurotas, which flows down to it from the uplands of Arcadia, and at its southern end passes through a narrow defile to the sea. This was the "hollow Lacedæmon" (κοίλη Λακεδαίμων) of Homer; the epithet "full of hollows" (κηρώεσσα) refers to the numerous rifts and fissures in the undulating ground in its neighbourhood. The city of Sparta stood on several low hills at the edge of the plain, on the western bank of the stream; and the absence of a circuit of walls is sufficiently explained by the rampart of mountains that rose on all sides of it. Only two passes led through these, and both were rugged and easy of defence. One of them led from the Stenyclerian plain and from south-western Arcadia into the upper valley of the Eurotas; the other passed by Sellasia, eastward of Sparta, where the roads from Tegea in south-eastern Arcadia and from Argos through Thyreæ met. Sellasia was the scene of the great defeat of the Spartans by Antigonus Doson (B.C. 221). The position of this people in this remote valley explains many things in their history and institutions. Such a nation would be naturally exclusive and unaffected by external ideas. Hence also arose the possibility of maintaining a rigid system, such as that of Lycurgus, and the concentrated vigour of their action. The rest of Laconia, which was cultivated by the Perioeci, was a mountainous region; but the Sciritis, on the northern frontier, was the most rugged district of all. The region of Cynuria in the neighbourhood of the Argolic Gulf, with its town of Thyrea, was the borderland between Laconia and Argolis. Of the places on the coast, we may notice Gytheium, the port of Sparta, westward of the mouth of the Eurotas; and on the eastern coast the safe harbour of Epidaurus Limæra. The island of Cythæra, which lay opposite Malea, was on several occasions a source of danger to Laconia,

from its liability to be occupied by an enemy's forces. At an early period it was a great resort of the Phœnicians for the sake of the purple fisheries.

7. **Arcadia.**—Arcadia is the central district of the Peloponnese, and is enclosed by mountains, being itself very elevated, for the average level is 2,000 feet above the sea. A great part of it was covered with forests of oak and pine, whence Pan and Artemis were two of the principal divinities of the country. It was divided into two portions, eastern and western, by Mount Mænalus, and these two areas were different in character. That to the west is an undulating upland plain, the southern part of which is drained by the Alpheius, rising near the head-waters of the Eurotas; the northern by its chief tributary, the Ladon. Its most famous town was Megalopolis, which was founded by Epaminondas, to command the pass that enters Laconia by the valley of the Eurotas. The eastern portion, on the other hand, was composed of a number of closed valleys, which from being completely surrounded by mountains have no outlet for their waters, and consequently are partly occupied by lakes or marshy ground, and are drained by subterranean channels, called Catavothras. Three of these lie towards the north—those of Phenœus, Stymphālus, and Orchomēnus, while to the south is the great double plain of Mantinea and Tegœa: the Catavothra of this lay on the confines of the two territories, and was a source of dispute to the two cities. The importance of Tegœa consisted in its commanding the pass by which eastern Arcadia could be approached from Sparta; and that of Mantinea in like manner in its commanding those towards Argos. The plain of Mantinea was the scene of several important battles. The effect on the Arcadians of their seclusion and the absence of all maritime influences was to render them rude and boorish; and this was increased by the heavy air of the closed valleys, which affected them as it did the Bœotians

(p. 75). Being excluded from other careers, they adopted the trade of mercenaries, and became to the other Greeks what the Swiss, who hold a similar position in Europe, have been in modern history.

8. *Argolis*.—Argolis forms a peninsula to itself, separate from the rest of the Peloponnese, and from its length of coast bore in early times the name of *Acte*, which was also applied to Attica, a territory of corresponding shape. In consequence of this it was brought more into contact with the outer world than the other states, and rose to importance at an earlier period. The head-quarters of this primitive civilisation was the plain of Argos, which, like that of Athens, is surrounded on three sides by mountains, but on the southern side opens out towards the sea. On a hill at the head of this stood the earliest seat of empire, *Mycēnæ*; and on the eastern side nearer to the sea, on a crest of rock rising out of the level plain, was *Tiryns*, famed for its massive Cyclopean walls. Opposite this lay Argos, with its ancient acropolis, called by the Pelasgian name of *Larissa*; and on the coast, where a rocky tongue of land projects into the bay from its eastern shore, was *Nauplia*, originally a colony of the Phœnicians, and a point of contact between that people and the Greeks. As at *Cythera*, so here also, the Phœnicians were attracted by the purple-fisheries, and in return imparted to the inhabitants the arts of the East (see p. 35). Between the plain of Argos and the district of Corinth an upland region intervened, which was divided into a number of small plains, forming the territories of *Phlius*, *Nemea*, and *Cleōnæ*. The pass that led into this from the neighbourhood of *Mycenæ* was the *Tretos*, a rugged defile, known as the abode of the Nemean lion. The maritime towns of Argolis, several of which were of great importance, may be noticed in following the coast round from the head of the Argolic Gulf. A little to the south of *Nauplia* we meet with *Asīne*, the Dryopian inhabitants of which.

when expelled by the Argives, settled in Messenia (p. 85); at the broad end of the peninsula, in the recesses of a safe bay, lay Hermiōne, also a Dryopian town; then passing round Cape Scyllæum, and the little island of Calaurëia, where Demosthenes died, we reach Trœzen, somewhat withdrawn from the coast, and finally Epidaurus. In front of Trœzen a strange peninsula of volcanic origin, that of Methāna, projects into the sea; and between this and the coast of Attica, in the middle of the Saronic Gulf, lies the island of Ægina. The position of this opposite Athens rendered it an outpost of the Peloponnesians, and justified the title applied to it by Pericles, "the eyesore of the Piræus."

9. **The Islands of the Ægean.**—The islands which belong to the eastern and western shores of the Ægean have already been noticed in connection with the neighbouring continents. Of the rest, some form themselves into groups, like the Cyclades, while others are more isolated in their position. All of them are extremely rocky, and rise into lofty peaks of beautiful form; and though on the map they may resemble a handful of pebbles flung down, yet not a few of them are of considerable extent: Naxos, for instance, is nearly twenty miles long. In the northern waters, or Thracian Sea, lie Thasos, famous for its gold-mines; Samothrace, the home of the worship of the Cabeiri; Imbros; and Lemnos, the island on which, according to the story, Hephæstus fell, and which bears evident signs of volcanic action. From the extremity of Pelion there runs off a string of small islands, of which Sciāthos and Scopëlos are the chief; and further to the south, opposite Eubœa, is Scyros, once the home of Achilles. We have noticed (pp. 65, 66) how two lines of islands form continuations of the mountains of Greece—Andros, Tenos, and Mycōnos beyond the extremity of Eubœa, and Ceos, Cythnos, Seriphos, and Siphnos beyond that of Attica; and the appearance they present is that of a mountain-



chain half submerged in the sea. Between these two lines lay the rock of Gyáros, the Roman place of banishment; and the interval between Myconos and Samos was bridged by the long line of Icaria, to the south of which a space of sea was called the Icarian Sea, and contained the island of Patmos, the place of exile of St. John the Evangelist. These islands, it should be remembered, were a great help to colonization and commerce in the infancy of navigation, because a ship could pass from one to another of them without losing sight of land. Close to Myconos lay the sister islands of Delos and Rheneia, divided by a narrow strait; on the shore of this was the famous temple of Apollo in Delos, and behind it rose the height of Cynthus. Further to the south was the important island of Naxos, and Paros with its quarries of white marble. These islands, together with those that formed the two lines just mentioned, were called the Cyclades, because they were regarded as forming a circle round the sacred isle of Delos. Those that lay immediately to the south of these bore the name of Sporādes, from their more irregular grouping. Two of the most outlying of these were ancient volcanic craters—Melos to the south-west, and Thera (Santorin), the mother-island of Cyrène, due south; the latter has been in a state of eruption both in classical times and in our own days. To the southward of Thera extended the wide expanse of the Cretan Sea, which was much dreaded by sailors on account of its stormy character. Finally, another chain of islands formed a link between Europe and Asia, where Crete is connected on the one side by Cythera with the Peloponnese, and on the other by Casos, Carpāthos, and Rhodes with Caria. Crete itself was intersected in its whole length by a lofty mountain range, the snowy summits of which were visible both from Malea and from Thera; its central peak was Mount Ida. The principal cities were Cydonia and Cnossus on the northern side, and Gortyna on the southern at the

foot of Ida. Cnossus was the ancient capital, and the fabled Labyrinth was in its neighbourhood; but in Roman times the chief city was Gortyna. On the southern coast was the harbour called the "Fair Havens," where St. Paul landed when on his voyage from Judæa to Rome.

10. **The Western Islands.**—Of the islands on the western side of Greece the northernmost was Corcyra (Corfu), which forms a breakwater before a portion of the coast of Epirus. It was an important station on the passage from Greece to Italy. The city was situated on the eastern side, on a peninsula between the sea and a shallow inlet, called the Hyllaic harbour. In its neighbourhood were two conspicuous peaks close to the sea, which Virgil calls the "*aerias Phæacum arces*," and which form the modern citadel. To the north of these lay an islet called Ptychia. The next large island, Leucas or Leucadia (Santa Maura) lying just south of the entrance of the Ambracian gulf, was originally joined to the mainland by an isthmus, but the Corinthian colonists cut this through, and converted a peninsula into an island: the canal, however, was soon filled up by a deposit of sand. At the southern extremity of the island was the cape Leucæte, with its temple of Apollo, from which Sappho was said to have thrown herself into the sea. Beyond this was the rugged Ithaca, with its conspicuous mountain, Neritos; and, separated from it by a narrow strait, the large island of Cephallenia. The last that remains to be mentioned is Zacynthus (Zante), which lay off the coast of Elis.

CHAPTER IX.

NORTHERN AND CENTRAL ITALY.

1. **General Features of Italy: The Apennines.**—The comparison by which the shape of Italy can best be described is the familiar one of a boot

kicking a football. According to this, Sicily is the ball, Bruttium is the toe of the boot, and Calabria the heel, the interval between which is formed by the Bay of Tarentum; and the promontory of Gargānus is the spur. The determining features of the geography of Italy are the Alps and the sea, by which it is bounded, and the Apennines which intersect it. The seas between which it lies are the Adriatic (*Mare Hadriaticum*, *Hadria*), or, as it was more commonly called by the Romans, the *Mare Superum*, and the Tyrrhenian Sea, or *Mare Inferum*, while between the sole of the boot and the coast of Greece the Ionian Sea extended. For purposes of description the entire country may conveniently be divided into three portions:—the northern, or that which lies between the Alps and a line formed by the coast of the *Ligusticum Mare* (Gulf of Genoa) and the Apennines as far east as *Ariminum*; the central, reaching from thence to the southern limit of Campania and Mount Garganus; while the remainder is the southern portion. The Apennines, which take their rise near the point where the Alps sink down towards the Ligurian Sea, pursue an easterly course till they almost touch the Adriatic, and then turning directly to the south-east, throughout Central Italy are not far removed from that sea, but send down spurs to the *Mare Inferum*, which enclose plains of considerable extent in Latium and Campania. In the southern portion, on the other hand, the mountains retire from the Adriatic, and leave room for an extensive tract of level ground in Apulia. The rivers, which, except in the north, are nowhere of great size, run from this central backbone towards the two seas; and the greater part of the surface of the country is broken up into deep valleys which penetrate amongst and through the mountains. Thus Italy is diversified by fertile plains, upland pastures, and forest land. It has also a line of volcanic action running through it and Sicily from south to north, in the active volcanoes

of *Ætna*, *Stromboli*, and *Vesuvius*, the extinct crater of the *Mons Vultur*, between *Lucania* and *Apulia*, the *Phlegræan* plains in *Campania*, the *Alban Hills* in *Latium*, and several spots in *Etruria*.

2. **Contrast of Italy and Greece.**—From this description it will be seen that the configuration of Italy, when compared with that of Greece, presents many points of contrast which greatly affected the development of the two peoples. The long sea line of Italy is comparatively uniform, and but little indented with bays and harbours, nor are there, as in Greece, numerous islands lying off the coast. The last limb, in which the peninsula would naturally culminate, instead of being attached to the body, as the *Peloponnese* is to the rest of Greece, in the case of *Sicily* is dis severed from it by a strait. And the irregularities of the valleys in the interior, by providing a means of passing from one district to another, caused the separate parts to be less complete in themselves. Thus the inhabitants were not tempted to a maritime life, like the Greeks, nor drawn out of themselves; while at the same time the internal influences were less local and less characteristic. It should also be remarked how Greece and Italy stand, as it were, back to back to one another; for whereas the outlets of the former country are, as we have seen, towards the east (p. 67), those of Italy are towards the west; and thus the two were left, during the greater part of their history, to pursue their own courses independently of one another.

3. **The Alps.**—The vast chain of the Alps, which presents a formidable obstacle to those who approach Italy from the north, stretches in an arc from the head of the *Mare Inferum* to that of the *Mare Superum*, starting from the former near the *Portus Herculis Monæci* (*Monaco*), and descending on the latter beyond *Tergeste* (*Trieste*). The passes of the Alps were not distinguished by the Romans by a different name from that of the chains through which they led.

Starting from the Ligurian Sea, the range at first takes a northerly direction between Gaul and Italy, including,—first, the Alpes Maritimæ; next, the Alpes Cotticæ, over which an important pass (Mont Genève) led from Vienna on the Rhone (Vienne) through the territory of the Allobroges to Augusta Taurinorum (Turin); and lastly, the Alpes Graiæ (Little St. Bernard), by which Hannibal entered Italy. Here the Alps begin to turn towards the east, the corner stone at the angle being formed by Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe. Then follows the Pennine chain, between Helvetia and Italy, with the pass of the great St. Bernard, and still further to the east the Alpes Rhæticiæ. After this, the mountains that sweep round towards the Adriatic bear the name of Carnian or Julian Alps. The Apennines, though a well-marked chain, nowhere approach the elevation of the Alps, for their loftiest summits in the centre of the peninsula do not reach 10,000 feet, whereas some of the Alps are half as high again.

4. *Northern Italy.*—Northern Italy was composed of three districts, Liguria, Gallia Cisalpina, and Venetia. The first-mentioned of these countries included the shores of the Ligusticum Mare, and the range of the Apennines which here borders the sea, together with the territory at the back, as far as Augusta Taurinorum and the Padus. It was a rugged district, inhabited by equally rude mountaineers. The last named, Venetia, was all that lay east of the Athësis (Adige), about the head of the Adriatic. Its chief city was Aquileia, near the innermost waters of that sea, which derived its importance from its being the first stronghold to oppose an enemy who entered Italy by land from the east. In the west, Patavium, the birthplace of Livy, was also a place of importance. The rest of Northern Italy was the country inhabited by the Italian Gauls, which, to distinguish it from Gallia proper, was known as Gallia Cisalpina; in later times it was also called Togāta, because of the number

of Roman citizens who were settled in it. This entire area is one perfectly level expanse, 200 miles in length, from the upper waters of the Po near Turin to the Adriatic, and from 60 to 100 in width between the Alps and the Apennines. On its northern side, at the foot of the Alps, and flanked by the spurs of those mountains, lie several lakes, the principal of which were called in ancient times Verbānus (Lago Maggiore), Larius (Lago di Como), and Benācus (Lago di Garda). The vast plain is drained by the Padus or Eridānus (Po)—the king of rivers, “*fluviorum rex*,” as Virgil calls it—which runs due west and east; and by its numerous tributaries, the principal of which flow from the northern side, where they are fed by the waters and snows of the Alps. The chief of these are those which carry off the waters of the three great lakes—the Ticinus those of Verbanus, the Addua of Larius, and the Mincius of Benacus. Of the southern affluents only one deserves notice, and that less for its size than for the great battle between the Romans and Carthaginians that was fought on its banks—the Trebia, which joins the Padus near Placentia. In consequence of this abundant supply of water this region is one of the most fertile tracts in Europe. The principal Gallic tribes that were settled in it were—to the south of the lakes of Verbanus and Larius the Insubres, whose chief city was Medioeānum (Milan); between Benacus and the Padus the Cenomāni; about the mouths of the Padus the Lingōnes; between these and the Apennines the Boii; and to the south of Ariminum the Senōnes. In later times the district was occupied by important Roman colonies which were planted there, at first with the object of keeping the Gauls in check—thus Placentia and Cremōna were founded just before the second Punic war—and afterwards with the view of occupying the productive lands. To the south of the Padus, following the line of the Via Æmilia, by which the great northern road from Rome—the Via Flaminia, was

continued from Ariminum towards the north-west, were Bononia (Bologna), Mutina (Modena), Parma, and Placentia (Piacenza). On the northern side, to the west of Placentia stood Ticinum (Pavia) on the Ticinus; to the east, Cremona on the Padus, Mantua on the Mincius, and Verona on the Athesis. On the coast between Ariminum and the mouths of the Padus was Ravenna, the station of the Roman fleet on the Mare Superum.

5. Central Italy: Etruria.—The mountain region of Italy commences with Etruria, which was the northernmost country of the central district. We have seen (p. 93) how in this part the Apennines, which intersect the peninsula, are further removed from the lower than from the upper sea, and form the extensive plains of Latium and Campania by means of lateral spurs, which run down to the sea and thus enclose them on the two sides. Etruria, which interposes between Cisalpine Gaul and Latium, is neither a level nor yet a highly mountainous country, but composed for the most part of irregular hilly ground, though the sea-coast is skirted by a flat marshy tract, now called the Maremma, and there are considerable spaces of alluvial ground about the two principal river-valleys—that of the Arnus in the north, and that of the Clanis, which flows at right angles to it, towards the south. The boundaries of Etruria are, on the north the Apennines, on the west the Tyrrhenian Sea, and on the east the Tiber, which skirts it throughout its whole course from its source to its mouth, and receives the waters of the Clanis. The sea-coast, the line of which was followed by the Via Aurelia, at two points formed considerable headlands—the Mons Agentarius near the town of Cosa, and the promontory of Populonium near the town of that name; between the latter and Corsica lay the island of Ilva (Elba). The southern portion of the country is a volcanic district, comprising a number of lakes which occupy extinct craters; the largest of these is that of

Vulsinii, and of the same character was the Ciminian Lake, the hills and forests in the neighbourhood of which were for a long time the limit of the Roman arms. In this part lay the cities which were most closely connected with Roman history—Veii, only twelve miles distant from Rome, and Agylla or Cære in the same neighbourhood, a little to the north of which were Falerii and Tarquinii. Beyond these, Clusium, the city of Porsena, stood in the valle of the Clanis, and Perugia (Perugia), near that of the Tiber, and within a triangle formed by these two cities and Cortona was the lake Trasimenus, on the northern shore of which occurred the great defeat of the Romans by Hannibal. In the upper valley of the Arnus, at the foot of the Apennines, was Arretium, and near its lower course Fæsulæ, close to which on the river itself the colony of Florentia (Florence) was planted by the Romans in the later period of the republic; near its mouth lay Pisæ (Pisa), the port of which was used by the Roman fleets. In this enumeration the names of the principal of the twelve cities of the Etrurian League have occurred. This people possessed the earliest civilisation of any in Italy, and were a great maritime power in the infancy of the Roman state. Their proficiency in the arts is shown by the paintings in their sepulchres, and by their works in metal and pottery, as well as their massive works in masonry, such as the Cloaca Maxima at Rome.

6. Umbria.—In the more restricted use of the name Umbria was the country enclosed by the Apennines, the Tiber, which separated it from Etruria, and the Nar, one of the principal tributaries of that river, which was famed for its white and sulphureous water. But this region was after a time extended across the Apennines to the Adriatic, so as to include the territory possessed by the Gallic tribe of the Senones; and this additional district was divided from Picenum by the river Aësis, and from Cisalpine Gaul by the Rubicon. As Cisalpine Gaul was not

included in Italy at the time when it formed part of Cæsar's province, his crossing that river was equivalent to an invasion of Italy and a declaration of war. On the Adriatic coast of this country lay the important towns of Ariminum and Pisaurum, to the southward of the latter of which flowed the small river Metaurus, famous for the defeat of Hasdrubal. The region to the south of the Apennines was for the most part mountainous, but in the centre of it lies a plain famed for its beauty and fertility, being watered by the clear stream of the Clitumnus; here were bred the white oxen that were sacrificed by the Romans on occasions of special festivity. The principal cause of the importance of Umbria was that it commanded the approach to Rome from the north by the line of the Via Flaminia, which, starting from Ariminum and following the valley of the Metaurus upwards, crossed the Apennines, and passed through Nuceria, Mevania, Carsölæ, and Narnia in that country.

7. **The Sabine Territory.**—The territory that lay to the south-east of Umbria, separated from it by the Nar, and from Latium by the Anio, was inhabited by the Sabines. Its principal river was the Velinus, which flows into the Nar. It was an elevated and rugged district throughout, so that even the Mons Lucretillus, which borders on the Campagna of Rome, reaches a height of more than 4,000 feet. In consequence of this its occupants were known for their frugality and purity of domestic life, which are the best characteristics of mountaineers, and formed a marked contrast to the luxury and depravity of the neighbouring capital. Their chief town was Reâte, to which the Via Salaria led from Rome. At the back of the Mons Lucretilis flowed the Digentia, on the banks of which Horace had his Sabine farm. From the upper part of this region, near the foot of the Apennines, which was the original home of the Sabines, went forth a number of colonies, who formed the nations of the Picentes, the Samnites, and the Hirpini

8. Picenum; Vestini, Marrucini, Frentani, Marsi, Peligni.—The country to the east of Umbria, between the Apennines and the Adriatic, was occupied by the Picentes or people of Picenum, after whom followed in order the Vestini, Marrucini, and Frentani, which last tribe was separated from Apulia by the Tifernus. The characteristics of this entire region are the same—a fertile soil, a genial climate, hills sloping from the lofty mountains to the coast, and numerous streams of no great size running parallel to one another. It contained no cities of first-rate importance, with the exception of Ancōna in the north of Picenum, which was originally a Greek colony, and possessed a good harbour. The elevated valleys in the heart of the Apennines, which lay inland from the Vestini and Marrucini, were occupied by the Marsi and Peligni, of whom the Marsi were settled in the basin of the Lacus Fusinus, the level of which is more than 2,000 feet above the sea. This lake is the most central point in the Italian peninsula, lying exactly equidistant from the northern and southern extremity, and midway between the two seas. In consequence of their great elevation, the Marsian and Pelignian territories had a very severe climate, so that Horace speaks of extreme cold as “*Peligna frigora* ;” the hardy Marsi were known as the bravest troops in the Roman army. The Frentani were bordered on the south by the Samnites, from whom they were descended, and with whom at a later time we find them closely connected. Of the other tribes who were of Sabine origin, the Picentes, from their remote position towards the north, were somewhat dissociated from the rest; but the Vestini, Marrucini, Marsi, and Peligni formed a sort of league amongst themselves, and at the time of the Social War we find them closely combined against Rome.

9. Latium: General Features.—We come now to Latium, the most important province of Italy on account of its close connection with Rome.

In its widest extent it was bounded on the west by Etruria, from which it was separated by the Tiber; on the east by a corner of Samnium and by Campania, where the limit was formed by the Liris; and on the south by the sea. But it must be remembered, that throughout early Roman history Latium signifies the land of the Latini, and did not include the territories of the Æqui, Hernici, and Volsci, which lie within the boundaries that have just been given. The physical features of this district are strikingly different from those of the other countries of Central Italy that we have described. Here a plain of considerable extent, intersected by the Tiber, is interposed between the Apennines and the sea, and is enclosed, on the west by the mountains of Etruria; on the east by a long spur thrown out by the main chain, the northern heights of which were occupied by the Æqui, the southern by the Volsci; at the point where this reached the sea stood the town of Anxur or Tarracina, built in a conspicuous position on white cliffs—“*impositum saxis late candentibus*,” as Horace describes it. Between the mountains of the Æqui and Volsci a wide valley intervenes, which is watered by the Trerus, a tributary of the Liris; this formed the natural passage from Rome into Campania, and was the line followed by the Via Latina. On the northern side of it, close to the Æqui, was the territory of the Hernici; and the importance to Rome of their alliance with that people arose from their lying between their common enemies, the Æqui and Volsci. Now the western part of the plain thus enclosed belonged to Etruria, while the eastern part, which now forms the Campagna of Rome, was Latium; hence it will be seen that many objects which were conspicuous from Rome did not lie within the latter country: thus Lucretilis to the north-east was in the Sabine territory; and Soracte due north, the snows on which Horace speaks of as visible from the city, was on the western bank of the Tiber, and consequently in Etruria. In

the middle of the plain, separated from the Apennines above Præneste by an interval of five miles, and by an equal distance from the Volscian mountains, there rose an isolated group of volcanic hills, the outer line of which is nearly circular, forming the rim of a vast crater, while in other parts were smaller craters, several of which were filled with water. These hills were the Alban Hills, and the largest of these pieces of water was the Alban Lake. In its neighbourhood was the city of Alba Longa and the Alban Mount, with the temple of Jupiter on its summit, which was the central sanctuary of the Latin race; and on the outer hills stood Tuscŭlum (Frascati) facing Rome, while on the other side Mount Algĭdus rose opposite to the Volscian mountains: on one of the southern spurs Lanuvium was situated. The rest of Latium was an irregular undulating plain, the volcanic soil of which was cut into ravines by torrents, and thus afforded positions for fortified cities. The coast was sandy and fringed with forests, and formed small headlands at Ostia, the port of Rome at the mouth of the Tiber, and at Antium, and a more considerable promontory at Circeii, where a solitary mountain rises from the sandy shore. Not far from this point, at the foot of the Volscian mountains, lay the extensive Pomptine marshes.

10. **Its Rivers and Cities.**—Of the rivers of Latium, the Tiber, which was far the most considerable, flowed from the north, and the Anio from the north-east, emerging from the mountains at the city of Tibur (Tivoli), where it leapt over the rocks and formed the celebrated waterfall. On the north side of the Anio, a short distance from its junction with the Tiber, rose a low hill, the Mons Sacer, famous as the scene of the secession of the Plebs; and the Tiber, also a few miles above the confluence, is joined by the small stream of the Allia, where the forces of Rome were overthrown by the Gauls; while from the side of Etruria it receives the waters of the Cremĕra, noted

for the almost total destruction of the Gens Fabia on its banks on the same inauspicious day of the year (July 16). The city of Rome was situated three miles below the junction of the Tiber and Anio, and was twenty-seven miles distant from the sea at Ostia by the river, but only fifteen in a direct line. The rest of the places of note in Latium besides those already mentioned, may for the most part be given by following the two great roads, the Via Latina and Via Appia. On or near the Latin Way, which followed the more inland route, were, first, Tusculum in the Alban Hills, then Anagnia, once the capital city of the Hernici, and further on Ferentinum and Fregellæ, near which last town the Liris was crossed and Campania entered, after which the Latin Way joins the Appian at Casilinum. On the Appian Way the first stage was Aricia at the southern foot of the Alban Hills, then Tres Tabernæ and Appii Forum, at which place the Pomptine marshes begin, and extend nearly to Anxur, where the road skirts the sea; after which it leads by Fundi, Formiæ, and Minturnæ on the banks of the Liris into Campania. In the neighbourhood of Minturnæ were the extensive marshes, in which Caius Marius lay concealed; and on a small headland near Formiæ stood Caiëta (Gaeta), the reputed burial-place of Æneas' nurse. Near the sea-coast between Ostia and Antium were Lavinium, the foundation of which was ascribed by tradition to Æneas, and Ardea, the chief city of the Rutuli. Finally, Præneste (Palestrina) ought especially to be noticed on account of its strong position on a spur of the Apennines, lying due east of Rome; and half-way between the two cities lay the ancient town of Gabii. The topography of Rome itself will be given in the next chapter.

II. *Campania*.—The second great plain on the western side of the Apennines was that of Campania. This country lay between the Samnite mountains and the sea, and was separated from Latium by the Liris,

and on the south was bounded by a spur of the Apennines, which forms a strongly-marked chain of lofty summits, and projects into the sea on the south side of the Bay of Naples. It was not, like Latium, an irregular plain, but an almost unbroken level, though the northern district about Suessa and Teanum was hilly; but this was not originally included in Campania, which, as its name implies, was the country of the Campāni, or dwellers in the plain. The delightful climate of this region, and the fertility of the soil, was proverbial in ancient times; there it was that the famous oil of Venāfrum and the Massic and Falernian wines were produced. The soil of the plain was volcanic, and traces of volcanic action were found not only in Mount Vesuvius, in the recesses of the Bay of Naples, but also in the hills on the northern side of that bay, which terminated in the promontory of Misēnum, and in the neighbouring territory of Cumæ, which was called the Phlegræi Campi. To trace out the different districts: between the quiet stream of the Liris—" *taciturnus amnis*," as Horace calls it—and the larger and swifter Volturnus there intervened, in the lower part of their course, first a line of low hills, the Mons Massicus, and then an extent of level country, the Falernus Ager, while further inland lay Suessa, originally the capital of the Aurunci, Teanum, and Cales, and, nearer to the borders of Samnium, Venāfrum. The Via Latina passed through the three last-named places, and joined the Via Appia at Casilinum, an important position, because it commanded the passage of the Volturnus. From Teanum a branch line ran through Samnium to Beneventum. Three miles from Casilinum lay Capua, the chief city of the whole region, and further to the south-east, Suessula, at the foot of the Samnite mountains, and Nola, in the plain between them and Vesuvius.

12. The Crater. (Bay of Naples).—The fairest part of the coast of Campania was the bay, called from its form the Crater or "Bowl,"

and now known as the Bay of Naples. Its varied form, and the islands which form a continuation of its two promontories—Prochyta and Ænaria on the north, and Capræ on the south, resemble the shores of Greece more than any other part of Italy, and possess great maritime advantages; accordingly, we are not surprised to find that several Greek colonies were planted here, that of Cumæ in particular, on the coast to the north of Cape Misenum, dating from a very early period. In the later Roman times, it was a favourite retreat of the wealthy Romans, and its coasts were covered with their sumptuous villas. In the innermost bay on the north side lay Neapolis (Naples), and at the foot of Vesuvius towards that place, Herculaneum was situated, and on the further side Pompeii; on the southern coast, under the steep mountains which bound it, lay Surrentum, famous for its wines. Between the harbour of Naples and Cape Misenum a deep inlet, the Bay of Baiæ, ran in northward among the volcanic hills in that quarter, and on the west side of this stood the town of that name, on the east that of Puteöli. This neighbourhood in particular was a great place of resort, not only on account of its position, but because of the warm springs which issued from the volcanic soil. Near Baiæ were two lakes—the Lucrine, a shallow lagoon, famous for its oysters, and separated from the sea by a strip of sand, though subsequently it was converted into a port by Agrippa; and the Avernus, a freshwater lake close by, occupying the crater of a volcano, the sides of which were clothed with forests; this was the place of the oracle of the dead.

13. *Samnium*.—The district that lay inland from Campania and the east of Latium was occupied by the Samnites, who during a long period were the most formidable enemies of Rome. It was a confused mass of rugged mountains, but there were two important passages through it; one the line of the Via Appia, which passed from Capua to Beneventum, the

capital of the independent Samnite tribe of the Hirpini, and thence by Equus Tuticus into Apulia ; the other from Venafrum in the valley of the Vulturnus to Æsernia, and so to Bovianum near the head-waters of the Tifernus, which flowed into the Adriatic. As Bovianum was in the heart of Samnium, it was by this latter route that the Roman invasions of the country were usually made. Its rivers were the upper course of the Vulturnus in the north, and its tributary the Calor in the south. The mountains of the greatest historical importance were those that lay between Beneventum and the plain of Campania. To the west of that city rose Mount Taburnus, the neighbourhood of which was the land of the Caudini, which contained the pass called the Caudine Forks ; and between this and the plain ran a long ridge, the extremity of which, overlooking Capua, was Mount Tifāta, the post so long occupied by Hannibal.

CHAPTER X.

TOPOGRAPHY OF ROME. SOUTHERN ITALY AND SICILY.

1. **Rome ; its position.**—The position of Rome was suitable for a city which was to become the capital of Italy. It occupied a central position in that country, adapted for a seat of government ; and thus also, as its power extended, it was brought into contact with, and subdued, one after another of the various races of the peninsula. It was near the sea (fifteen miles distant), and therefore well situated for commerce and maritime supremacy ; but at the same time sufficiently distant from it to be safe from attacks from that quarter. It was built on a number of hills which formed a natural fortress, but its site admitted of unlimited extension over the neighbouring country. Finally, it was provided with means of sustenance in the neighbouring plain of Latium, and with a high-way of traffic in the river that flows beneath its walls.



From this river we will commence in describing its topography. Where the Tiber, after receiving the waters of the Anio, approaches Rome, it makes two sharp bends, first to the west and then to the east. On the western, or Etruscan bank, opposite the first of these bends, stood the Vatican Hill; opposite the second the Janiculan. These hills were higher than those of Rome, which rose on the eastern side, and were on an average 150 feet above the sea. The famous seven hills on which the city was built have been compared to an open hand, the palm of which is formed by the three that lie close to the river, the Capitoline, Palatine, and Aventine; the fingers by the four that radiate from these, the Quirinal, Viminal, Esquiline, and Cælian. To the north of these again lay the Pincian Hill, which was not included in Rome. Between the foot of the Pincian, Quirinal, and Capitoline Hills on the one side, and the river on the other, lay a considerable level, the Campus Martius, on which at the present day stands a large part of the city of Rome. The hills of Rome were separated from one another by well-marked valleys, and in these at an early period a number of ponds and marshes existed, which were afterwards drained, but in some instances left their traces in the names attached to the spots, such as the Lacus Curtius in the Forum. Rome has always been subject to inundations, and is so to the present day, owing to the rapid swelling of the Tiber. At the commencement of the second bend of the river, nearly opposite the Capitoline Hill, its stream was divided by an island, which contained a temple of Æsculapius, and was joined by bridges to the two shores.

2. The Capitoline, Palatine, and Aventine Hills.—Of the three hills of Rome that lie nearest to the Tiber, the Capitoline, which rises to the north, and the Aventine to the south, approach the bank of the stream; but the Palatine, which stands further to the east, is removed some distance from it, leaving an interval of level ground, which was enclosed between

the slopes of the three hills and the river. This low-lying district was called the Velābrum, and was originally a marsh until it was drained by the Cloaca Maxima, an arched passage of Etruscan construction, built of massive masonry, and reaching to the Tiber. The southern portion of the area towards the Aventine was called the Forum Boarium, and contained the cattle-market, or Smithfield, of Rome; while the Forum Olitorium, the vegetable market, or Covent Garden, lay between the Capitoline and the river. The valley above the Forum Boarium, between the Palatine and Aventine, was drained by a stream called the Aqua Crabra, and was almost filled by the Circus Maximus; while the valley which reached from the Velabrum to the Forum Romanum was traversed by two of the most frequented streets of Rome—the Vicus Jugarius, leading from the Forum Olitorium and skirting the Capitoline Hill, and the Vicus Tuscus towards the Palatine, where the principal shops of all kinds were situated. The Capitoline was divided into two peaks, towards the north-east and south-west, in the depression between which was the Lucus Asyli; one of these summits was called the Arx, the other, on which stood the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, the Capitolium; but the respective position of these is still a matter of doubt, though perhaps it is more probable that the Capitolium occupied the southern, the Arx the northern, summit, and this view will be adopted here. It was ascended by three approaches—a flight of steps, called the Centum Grādus, on the side towards the river, where also was the precipice of the Tarpeian Rock; a passage which led from the Forum to the Lucus Asyli; and, on the same side, the most important of all, the Clivus Capitolinus, which formed a continuation of the Via Sacra, and by which triumphal processions ascended to the temple of Jupiter. This last was a carriage-road, and each of the seven hills was provided with a similar Clivus. The Palatine was the central, and in some

respects the most important of the hills. On it stood the earliest city, which from its shape was called *Roma Quadrata*, and in the time of the emperors it was the site of the imperial residence. Here also stood the temple of *Apollo*, built by *Augustus* to commemorate his victory at *Actium*; in connection with it was a portico which contained the famous *Palatine library*. From the north-east side of the *Palatine* a low spur, the *Velia*, projected across the valley to the *Esquiline*; this will have to be noticed hereafter in connection with the *Via Sacra*. The *Aventine* was associated with the earliest Roman legends; at its foot was an altar of *Evander*, in the neighbourhood of which the cave of *Cacus* was shown; and on the summit was a spot called *Remuria*, in memory of the auspices taken by *Remus*. During the period of the Republic it was principally inhabited by plebeians.

3. *The Quirinal, Viminal, Esquiline, and Cælian Hills*.—Of the four remaining hills of Rome, the *Mons Cælius* stood apart by itself towards the south, while the others formed a separate group, being connected together on the outer side. The *Cælian*, though the largest of all the hills, was not occupied by any building of first-rate importance; but at its foot, in the interval between it and the *Palatine* and *Esquiline* hills, the *Flavian amphitheatre*, better known as the *Colossæum*, was erected by *Vespasian*. The three other heights were in reality four, according to the configuration of the ground, and had originally four distinct names; for the area, which was afterwards known as the *Esquiline*, was previously called the *Cespian* and *Oppian* hills, the *Oppian* being the larger and lying towards the south. The three valleys that separate these four hills—the *Quirinal*, *Viminal*, *Cespian*, and *Oppian*—from one another, radiate from a point to the northward of the *Forum*, where the *Quirinal* and *Oppian* approach one another somewhat closely. The depression, which is formed at the place where they all converge, was

occupied by the Subūra, the lowest and most crowded district in the city ; and, just as we frequently find in modern cities that the poorest and the wealthiest quarters lie close together, so here, in close proximity to the Subura, on the extremity of the Esquiline, stood the Carinæ, the most fashionable locality in Rome. On the Esquiline was the house of Mæcenas, where Horace was a frequent visitor, and Virgil and Propertius lived in the same neighbourhood ; and on the eastern slope of the hills, outside the Agger of Servius Tullius, were the gardens which Mæcenas laid out as a place of recreation for the Roman people. The site of these was previously a burying-place for paupers, to which Horace describes Canidia as resorting to perform her incantations. The Viminal was a hill of inconsiderable size, and was principally inhabited by the poorer classes ; in the valley between it and the Cespian Hill ran a street called the Vicus Patritius. Lastly, the Quirinal Hill, which faced the Capitoline, possessed an ancient temple of Quirinus, from which it took its name. The Mons Pincius, which lay without the city, was known for its gardens, the most famous of which were those of Lucullus. The Horti Sallustiani lay in the valley between the Quirinal and the Pincian.

4. The Forum Romanum and Via Sacra.—

We have now to speak of the Roman Forum, the chief centre of the business and political life of the city. This was situated in the valley to the north of the Palatine, and extended from the foot of the Capitol to the point where the Velia begins to rise (p. 109). It was an oblong area, though wider at the western than the eastern end, about 700 feet long by (on an average) 250 broad, and was paved with stone throughout. Along the southern side ran a row of shops and booths, the Tabernæ Veteres, and on the opposite side a similar row, the Tabernæ Novæ ; the shops stood side by side in porticoes, with balconies above, from which spectacles in the inner area could be watched. At first the shops were devoted to common trades, such as

butchers, and thus in the story of Virginia we hear of the father snatching up a butcher's knife from one of them to kill his daughter; but later on these were replaced, by silversmiths' shops. These features of the Forum must have remained unchanged on the whole throughout its history, and the narrowness of its limits must have testified in later times to the small beginnings of Rome; but the outer area gradually assumed a very different aspect, as it was adorned with numerous temples and extensive law-courts, called basilicas. In the inner space the most important portion was the Comitium, or meeting-place of the patricians, an uncovered and slightly elevated enclosure in the north-west corner, between which and the rest of the Forum at one point stood the famous Rostra or platform for speaking, adorned with the beaks of ships taken from the people of Antium. This platform faced both ways, and consequently it was a sign of a change in the tendency of politics when the speaker, from having been accustomed to face the Patres in the Comitium, turned to address the Plebs in the Forum. In the middle of the Forum was the site of the Lacus Curtius, which was afterwards drained and filled up. At the eastern end was the Puteal Libonis, a spot which had been consecrated after being struck by lightning, and then covered over so as to resemble a well, whence the name. This erection was repaired by the tribune Scribonius Libo, who transferred thither the Tribunal of the Prætor, whence it became a much-frequented place. To turn now to the outer area—under the Capitol, besides several temples, stood the Miliarium Aureum, a tall milestone of bronze gilt, erected by Augustus as a starting-point for the roads throughout Italy; and further to the north, at the angle of the hill, was the Mamertine prison, or Robur Tullianum, a subterranean dungeon, which may still be seen. In the neighbourhood of this also was the Gemoniæ, a set of steps on the hill-side, where the

bodies of malefactors were thrown down. On the north side of the Forum, beyond the *Via Sacra*, stood the *Basilica Portia*, the first building of its kind, erected by Cato the Censor; the *Curia Hostilia*, which formed the meeting-place of the Senate; and the *Basilica Paulli*. In front of the last were three statues of Janus, and as this neighbourhood was the resort of the money-lenders, the name Janus was used to describe their quarter. On the south side we need only notice the circular temple of Vesta, which was the resort and burial-place of the Vestal Virgins. The *Via Sacra*, the highway of sacred and triumphal processions, started from the *Carinæ* on the Esquiline, and crossing the valley, ascended the slope of the *Velia*, on the highest point of which the arch of Titus was erected to commemorate the capture of Jerusalem. Descending again to the Forum, it seems to have divided into two roads, one on the northern and one on the southern side, behind the rows of shops, after which it ascended diagonally to the Capitol by the *Clivus Capitolinus*.

5. **Walls and Gates of Rome.**—The seven hills of Rome were surrounded by a rampart, which was called the Walls of Servius Tullius. By the time of the Empire these had fallen into decay, but the wall that now exists, embracing a considerably larger area, was not built till the reign of Aurelian. The walls of Servius Tullius were extended beyond the Tiber, so as to include the summit of the Janiculum; and the bridge of which we most frequently hear as connecting the two regions, was a wooden bridge built on piles, and called the Sublician; the position of this seems to have been somewhere at the foot of the Aventine. Of the gates of Rome, three deserve especial notice as the most important, the *Collina*, *Capēna*, and *Carmētālis*. The *Porta Collina* was the northern gate, through which the *Via Salaria* issued (p. 99); to the east of it, outside the walls, lay the *Prætorian camp*, which was built for the Guard in the reign of Tiberius. To the south of the city was the *Porta Capena* at the



foot of the Cælian, to which Juvenal applies the epithet "madida," because of an aqueduct that passed over it. From it issued the Latin and Appian Ways, and just outside it lay the Vallis Egeriæ. The Carmental gate lay between the foot of the Capitol and the river, and was the starting-point of the Vicus Jugarius. The Via Flaminia issued from the Porta Ratumena on the north side of the Capitol, and passing through the Campus Martius, where it was called Via Lata, proceeded due north, until it crossed the Tiber by the Milvian bridge, two miles from Rome.

6. **Southern Italy.**—Southern Italy included the districts of Apulia, Calabria, Lucania, and the country of the Bruttii. Its characteristics were its warmer climate, its more indented coast, and the position of the level ground on the eastern instead of the western side, as it is in Central Italy. At the meeting point of Samnium, Apulia, and Calabria, where rises the lofty volcanic cone of the Mons Vultur, the chain of the Apennines divides, the main line pursuing its course towards the toe of Italy, while an inferior branch descends towards the heel. The coast was known to the Greeks as Magna Græcia, on account of the number and early prosperity of the Greek colonies that were established there. Of these, the Achæan cities of Sybâris and Croton, the Spartan colony of Tarentum, and the Locrian town of Locri, were founded about 700 B.C. The establishment of these was facilitated by the shortness of the passage from the neighbouring shores of Greece, the distance between Corcyra and the Iapygian promontory being not much more than sixty miles.

7. **Apulia and Calabria.**—The portion of southern Italy that lay between the Apennines and the Adriatic, and reached from the confines of the Frentani to the beginning of the heel of Italy, was called Apulia. The southern portion of this had a stony soil, almost devoid of streams; but the northern was an extensive and extremely fertile plain, excellently adapted for the growth of corn;

and for this reason Hannibal, during his campaign in Italy, made it his granary and the winter quarters of his army. This was watered by numerous rivers, the largest and southernmost of which was the impetuous stream of the Aufidus. Near the headwaters of this stood Venusia, the birthplace of Horace, with the fountain of Bandusia in its neighbourhood, and the Mons Vultur rising above it; all these objects are celebrated in the poet's writings. He describes Venusia as situated on the frontier of Apulia and Lucania, saying of himself that he was

" Lucanus an Apulus anceps,
Nam Venusinus arat finem sub utrumque colonus."

Further down the stream were Canusium and the disastrous battle-field of Cannæ; and at no great distance to the north of Venusia lay Asculum, the scene of another great defeat of the Romans by Pyrrhus. Further to the north was the important town of Luceria. The Appian Way, which we have already traced through Latium, Campania, and Samnium, passed through this country on its way to Tarentum and Brundisium. This was the inland route, but it was possible also to skirt the coast from Barium onwards, as Horace did in his "*Iter ad Brundisium*." The spur of Italy, which was formed by the promontory of Gargānus, was an isolated mountain district clothed with dense forests, and from its position exposed to the winds from both sides. The *Matinum Litus* on its southern coast was famous for its honey. The heel-piece of Italy was inhabited by two tribes, the Calabri on the northern, the Salentini on the southern coast; but by the Romans the whole district was known as Calabria, by the Greeks as Messapia or Iapygia. It was a low-lying country, with slight undulations, for the spur of the Apennines which descends in this direction does not penetrate to the Iapygian promontory. Within it were situated two towns of great importance—Brundisium on the



side facing Greece, which was the place of embarkation for Dyrrhachium and the Via Egnatia; and Tarentum, at the head of the bay of the same name, which at one time was the most powerful town of Magna Græcia, and was always a great commercial city from its admirable port, and the excellence of its products in wine, oil, wool, and the purple dye.

8. **Lucania and the Bruttii.**—Lucania occupied the angle formed by the Tarentinus Sinus and the Mare Inferum, and was bounded on the north by Campania, Samnium, and Apulia. It was traversed throughout its whole extent by the Apennines, though on the eastern side a considerable space is left between these and the sea. Its chief towns lay on the sea-coast, and these were all of Greek origin. On the west side lay Posidonia or Pæstum, in the next bay after that of Naples, which was famed in ancient times for its roses, and is now known for the remains of its three fine temples; Elëa or Velia, the home of the Eleatic school of philosophy; and Laus: on the eastern, Sybâris on the Crathis, the luxury of which has passed into a by-word; after the destruction of which city by the people of Croton, the neighbouring Thurii was founded by Athenian colonists, among whom was the historian Herodotus; Heracleia, where the Romans received their first defeat from Pyrrhus; and Metapontum. The district which formed the toe of Italy was inhabited by the Bruttii. This commences at the point where the Bay of Tarentum and the Mare Inferum approach most closely to one another, being about thirty miles apart. Lower down again, below the promontory of Lacinium, which projects considerably towards the east, near the town of Croton, a still narrower isthmus, seventeen miles wide, is formed between the gulfs of Terina and Scylletium; and here the Apennines, which elsewhere almost fill up the country, are broken through, so that the ground is low between the two seas. The mountain district to the south of this was called Sila, and was famed for its extensive

forests. Here on the east coast were Caulon and Locri Epizephyrii, which received its distinctive appellation from the promontory of Zephyrium, further to the south, on which the original city was built. The entire peninsula terminated in the headland of Leucopetra, and was separated from Sicily by the Fretum Siculum (Straits of Messina), on which stood the town of Rhegium. Between this place and Messāna on the Sicilian shore was the famous whirlpool of Charybdis, a strong eddy in the strait, formed by the meeting of different currents. At the northern entrance of the strait the rock of Scylla rose on the Italian coast.

9. **Sicily: General Description.**—The Island of Sicily, from its triangular shape, is one of the completest countries of Europe, and its position between the Carthaginian territory and Italy, and between the eastern and western bays of the Mediterranean, has caused it, both in ancient and modern times, to be a great meeting-place of different races. The course of ancient history was greatly determined by events that happened there: had the Carthaginians not been defeated by Gelo at Himēra (p. 48), they might have conquered Italy, and changed the face of Europe; had the Athenians won at Syracuse, a conflict must have ensued between them and Carthage, which might seriously have modified Roman history. Similarly in modern times, a history of Sicily would introduce on the stage in turn all the nations that inhabit the shores of the Mediterranean. The three angles of this triangle are formed by the promontories of Pelōrum in the north-east, Pachŷnus in the south, and Libybæum in the west; the last of these is only eighty miles distant from Cape Bon. The mountains of Sicily are a continuation of those of Italy, and, starting from the straits of Messina, run westwards through the island at no great distance from the northern coast; about the middle of their course another chain runs off from them at right angles, and descends towards the southern promontory. But the peculiarity which we have so



often noticed in the western countries of Italy, that the mountain ranges are interfered with by a system of volcanoes, is here still more prominent ; for by far the most important mountain in Sicily is *Ætna*, the height of which is nearly 11,000 feet, and its circumference ninety miles at its base. The connecting link between it and the Italian volcanoes was formed by the *Æoliæ Insulæ* (Lipari Islands), where *Æolus*, the king of the winds, was supposed to hold his court. The northernmost of these, *Strongyle* (*Stromboli*), was and is in a permanent state of eruption. The rivers, as might be expected in an island of moderate size, are of no great magnitude, the largest being the *Symæthus*, which drains the region west of *Ætna*, and flows towards the east, and the *Himëra* and *Halÿcus*, which rise in the centre of the country, and enter the western sea. But those of most fame are at the same time amongst the smallest in size, viz., the *Acis*, which flows through the lava of *Ætna*, and is associated with the story of *Polyphemus* and *Galatea* ; the *Anāpus* near *Syracuse*, which is inseparably connected with the pastoral poetry of *Theocritus* ; and the *Asinārus* towards the south, the scene of the final catastrophe of the disastrous Athenian expedition. The soil of Sicily was remarkably fertile, so that, like *Ægypt* and the province of *Africa*, it was considered one of the granaries of *Rome*.

10. **Cities of Sicily.**—The original inhabitants of Sicily were two tribes, the *Sicanians* in the west, and the *Sicels* in the east, both of whom belonged to the same Græco-Italian stock as the Greeks themselves. The consequence of this was, that when that people settled among them, the native and imported races easily intermingled (see *General Remarks*, p. 17) ; and this explains the extreme populousness of the Greek towns, which cannot be accounted for by the natural increase of the colonists alone. The Greeks of Sicily were called *Siceliōtes* by way of distinction. They were not, however, the earliest settlers, for there

were already Phœnician stations established in the west of the island, of which Panormus (Palermo), in a fine bay on the northern coast, was the most important. The great Carthaginian settlement of Lilybæum, on the promontory of the same name, which played so prominent a part in the first Punic War, was not founded until after 400 B.C. Off the coast between that place and Drepanum, also a Carthaginian stronghold, lay the Ægætes Islands, where Lutatius Catulus gained his great naval victory over that power (B.C. 241). Behind Drepanum rose Mount Eryx, on the summit of which was a famous temple of Venus. To turn now to the Greek cities: all the earliest of these, as we might expect, were settled on the east coast, which was nearest to Greece, and it was only gradually that they felt their way round the western shores of the island. On the Fretum Siculum lay Zancle, afterwards called Messāna, and further to the south, Naxos, the earliest of all the colonies, Catāna, and Leontīni: all these were Chalcidic cities, and the rivalry between these and the other colonies, which were mostly of Doric origin, materially affected their subsequent history. Then came Megara Hyblæa, the hills in the neighbourhood of which were famed for their honey, and Syracuse; and on the western coast Camarina, Gela, Agrigentum, and Selinus. Towards the north there was only one considerable Greek city, Himëra; for Segesta, which lay to the west of Panormus, though subsequently Hellenized, had originally a barbarian population. Exactly in the centre of the island, on a table-mountain with precipitous sides, stood Henna, the valleys in the neighbourhood of which were famous for their flowers, and were the scene of the rape of Proserpine.

11. **Syracuse.**—It remains to describe the topography of Syracuse, by far the most important place in Sicily. In the neighbourhood of that city three promontories project eastwards into the sea—the northernmost Thapsus, a low-lying peninsula—"Thap-

sum jacentem" Virgil calls it—joined to the mainland by a spit of sand; the next Achradina, a broad rocky mass of no great elevation; the southernmost Plemmyrium, a somewhat similar piece of land. Between the two latter lay a beautiful oval piece of water, the Great Harbour, in front of which the Island of Ortygia projected from the northern side. This island was about a mile in length, separated from the land by a narrow strait, and containing a remarkable fountain, which spread out into a basin—that of Arethusa. Between Ortygia and Achradina a small inlet, running in from the open sea, formed the Lesser Harbour. Into the innermost part of the Great Harbour the clear stream of the Anapus flowed from the interior through a broad marshy valley. On the northern side of the valley was a broad table of land, bordered both on the north and south by low precipices; this started from Achradina as its base, though separated from that piece of ground by a slight depression, and as it projected towards the interior became higher and narrower, until about three-and-a-half miles from the sea the two sides met at an acute angle. The table of land was called Epipölæ, or "The Heights," while the elevated spot which formed the apex of the triangle was named Euryêlus. The original city of Syracuse, like the modern one, occupied only the island of Ortygia; but by the time of the Athenian expedition it had spread over part of Achradina, and there was a suburb also on the nearer part of Epipölæ, named Temenitis. This last was afterwards included, together with the sloping ground towards the harbour, in the quarter called Neapolis; and a certain portion of the northern side of Epipölæ was built over, and called Tycha. Ultimately the whole of Epipölæ was enclosed by a wall.

12. *Corsica and Sardinia.*—Of the two large islands which lie to the west of Italy little need be said, for they had but little influence on ancient history. The northernmost of these, Corsica, was smaller and more mountainous than Sardinia, which possessed

considerable plains and afforded abundance of corn. In Corsica the place of chief importance was Aleria, or Alalia, on the middle of the east coast, originally a Greek settlement, but afterwards increased by Sulla with a colony of Roman citizens. Sardinia was for a long time occupied by the Carthaginians, who, however, were forced to retire from thence in the interval between the First and Second Punic Wars. Its capital, Carālis (Cagliari), was situated in the south of the island.

CHAPTER XI.

THE OUTLYING COUNTRIES OF EUROPE.

1. **Hispania or Iberia.**—Spain, from its broad surface, has been compared to a bull's hide, the neck-piece being formed by the isthmus that joins it to France. From its outlying position relatively to the rest of Europe, and the massive conformation of its surface, it also resembles one of the bastions that stand out from the angles of a fortified city. Its geography is at once marked and simple. Its boundaries are the Mediterranean, the Atlantic, and the Pyrenees. Its mountains, instead of running southward through the country, as in Italy and Greece, form a succession of parallel ranges, the general direction of which is from east to west. Between these lie extensive plains, increasing in elevation towards the centre of the country, which is a very lofty table-land. These plains are drained by a number of large rivers, only one of which, the Ibērus (Ebro), reaches the Mediterranean, while the others flow into the Atlantic, viz., the Durius (Douro), Tagus, Anas (Guadiana), and Bætis (Guadalquivir). From this it will be seen that the watershed of the peninsula is much nearer to the eastern than the western coast. From Africa it was divided by the Fretum Gaditanum (Straits of Gibraltar), where stood the two lofty rocks which are known as the Pillars of Hercules (see p. 11).

The whole country was divided by the Romans, at first into *Hispania Citerior* and *Ulterior*, the *Iberus* being the limit of the two; and afterwards into the three provinces of *Tarraconensis*, *Lusitania*, and *Bætica*; of which *Lusitania* corresponds to the country of Portugal, *Bætica* to the province of Andalusia, while the rest was comprehended by *Tarraconensis*.

2. Spanish Tribes and Cities.—The position of the principal native tribes can best be described by the rivers in the neighbourhood of which they lay. About the upper course of the *Durius* the *Vaccaeï* were settled; about that of the *Tagus* the *Carpetāni*, with *Tolētum* (Toledo) for their capital; about that of the *Anas* the *Oretāni*, while the *Turdetāni* lived about the mouth of the *Bætis*. On the great watershed, and in its neighbourhood, lay the *Celtibēri*, in the north of whose territory was *Numantia*, famous for its siege and capture by *Scipio Africanus* (B.C. 134). To the east of the *Iberus* lay the *Illergētes* in the neighbourhood of that river, whose chief city was *Ilerda*, the *Lacetāni* between them and the Pyrenees, and the *Ausetāni* between them again and the sea; these tribes became familiar to the Romans in the course of the Punic wars. Towards the centre of the north coast were the *Cantabri* and *Astūres*. The principal cities were (beginning from the north-east and following the coast) *Tarrāco* (Tarragona) on the hither side of the *Iberus*, and *Intibīli* on the further side; southwards of these *Saguntum*, and opposite the African coast *Carthago Nova* (Cartagena), in the recesses of one of the finest harbours in Europe. Beyond the Straits was the ancient Phœnician colony of *Gades* (Cadiz), standing at the end of an island which projected in front of its harbour in a position recalling that of *Syracuse*. Somewhere in this neighbourhood, towards the mouth of the *Bætis*, must have been the position of *Tartessus*. Following up that river we come first to *Hispālis* (Seville), then to *Cordūba* (Cordova), and lastly to *Illiturgis*. The final establishment of the Roman

dominion in the country is marked by the names of a number of colonies, the principal of which were *Cæsar Augusta* (Zaragoza) on the *Iberus* in the north-east, *Emerita Augusta* (Merida) on the *Anas* in the south-west, and *Asturica Augusta* (Astorga) and *Lucus Augusti* (Lugo) in the north-west. In the three last-named towns there are extensive remains of walls or public buildings dating from Roman times. The *Balearic Islands*, which lay off the east coast, were famous for their slingers.

3. *Gallia*.—The boundaries of Gaul on three sides were the Ocean, the Pyrenees, and the Mediterranean ; on the eastern side it was separated from Italy by the Alps, from *Helvetia* by the *Jura*, and from Germany by the Rhine ; though, as mountains are more real boundaries than rivers, (see General Remarks, p. 18), the *Mons Vosëgus* (Vosges), along the western side of the upper course of that river, would form the more natural limit. The passes of the Alps, by which it could be entered from Italy, have already been given (p. 94) ; those through the Pyrenees from the side of Spain, were at the eastern and western extremities of the chain, near where it abuts on the two seas. Like Spain, it was a land of great rivers, and its geography is best determined by their watersheds. The one which divides the northern from the southern part of the country runs westward from the southern extremity of the Vosges, separating the head-waters of the *Arar* (Saône), which flows southward and joins the *Rhodānus* (Rhône) at *Lugdūnum* (Lyons), from those that flow northward—the *Mosella* (Moselle) into the *Rhenus* (Rhine), and the *Mosa* (Meuse) and *Sequāna* (Seine) into the Ocean. On the other hand, the watershed of southern Gaul, starting from the western extremity of this, runs southward, as the *Mons Cevenna* (Cevennes) on the west bank of the *Arar* and *Rhodanus*, and reaches almost to the foot of the Pyrenees, separating those rivers from the *Liger* (Loire) and *Garumna* (Garonne), with their tributaries. The only



one of these streams that flows into the Mediterranean, the Rhone, rises in Helvetia near the sources of the Rhine, and after being joined by the Arar, receives on its eastern side two other rivers, which flow from the Alps, the Isăra (Isère) and Druentia (Durance).

4. Provinces, Tribes, and Cities of Gaul.

—The Romans divided Gaul into four provinces—Belgica in the north-east, Lugdunensis in the centre, reaching from Helvetia (Switzerland) as far as the extreme west of Armorica (Brittany), and extending as far south as Lugdūnum, its capital city; Aquitania in the south-west; and Narbonensis in the south-east, between the Cevennes, the Alps, and the Mediterranean. The last-named district was called in Cæsar's time the Provincia, and before that time Braccāta, because the inhabitants wore breeches; while the remaining area was called Comāta, from the long hair of its occupants. To distinguish it from the Gallic territory of North Italy, the whole country was called Gallia Transalpina. This comprised the modern territories of France, Belgium, and part of Holland. In noticing the principal tribes, we shall observe that the name of a tribe has not unfrequently passed into that of a modern city, which was originally its headquarters (so Augusta Taurinorum is now Turin). About the mouths of the Rhine and Meuse lay the Batāvi, and along the Rhine, between the Meuse and Moselle, the Ubii. South of this tribe was a wide extent of forest land, the Arduenna Silva (Ardennes). About the middle course of the Moselle lay the Trevīri (Trêves), and higher up the Mediomatrici, with the town of Divodūrum (Metz): at the head-waters of that stream and the Meuse, the Leuci, and at those of the Seine the Lingōnes (Langres). West of the Lingones, between the Seine and Loire, were the Senōnes. Further south, on the east of the Saône lay the Sequāni, on the west the Ædui; and south of these, beyond the upper stream of the Loire, the Arverni (Auvergne). Lastly, the country to the south-

east of Lyons was occupied by the Allobroges, and that between the Isara and Druentia by the Vocontii. The principal towns in the centre of the country were Avaricum (Bourges) and Genabum (Orleans), on the Loire about the middle of its course, and Lutetia (Paris), the chief city of the Parisii, on the Seine. Of the scenes of Cæsar's two great victories, Alesia, where Vercingetorix was captured, was in the centre of the country near the meeting of the two watersheds, while Uxellodūnum, where the final struggle took place, was in Aquitania, on one of the tributaries of the Garonne. The most highly civilised province was Narbonensis, and the evidence of this remains in the numerous specimens of Roman architecture which are preserved in that country. A short distance to the east of the mouths of the Rhone stood Massilia (Marseilles), originally a Phocæan colony, which, in consequence of its fine harbour, has been throughout its long history the great port of the country on the Mediterranean.

5. **Britannia.**—Virgil speaks of the Britanni as "*penitus toto divisos orbe*," and the country of that remote people need not delay us long. Its two principal rivers, the Tamēsis (Thames) and Sabrina (Severn), flow respectively into the eastern and western sea. Its mountains lie in the north and west of the country, and the low hills that intersect it elsewhere were not such as seriously to impede an invading force. Indeed in ancient times, as now, the sea was its safeguard, owing to the difficulty of landing, and the danger of the return being cut off in case of defeat. In order to prevent incursions from the tribes further north, the Emperor Adrian constructed a massive wall from the Solway Firth to the eastern coast; and Antoninus Pius drew a rampart across at a still more advanced point between the Firths of Clyde and Forth, where Agricola had before established a line of forts. To the north of this was the district called Caledonia. Two islands lay close to the coast at different points, separated by narrow straits, viz., Mona



(Isle of Anglesea) and Vectis (Isle of Wight). But the most famous islands in that neighbourhood in ancient times were the Cassiterides (Scilly Islands), off the west coast of Cornwall, to which the Phœnician traders resorted for the tin that was found on the mainland. The principal tribes were the Damnonii in Devon and Cornwall; the Belgæ, reaching from Hampshire to the Bristol Channel, with Venta Belgarum (Winchester) for their capital; the Cantii in Kent, with the port of Rutupiæ (Richborough) on their east coast, famous for its oysters, and the chief landing-place in that quarter; the Trinobantes in Essex; the Icēni in Norfolk and Suffolk; the Silūres in South Wales; and the Brigantes in the north of the country, as far as Adrian's wall. The two principal towns were Eborācum (York) in the north, and Londinium (London) in the south. The evidence of Roman occupation is found in the numerous names of towns which end in *chester* and *cester*, i.e., "*castra*," as Winchester, Gloucester, &c. What place is meant by the Thule of the Romans we do not know; but some persons have identified it with Iceland, some with one of the Shetlands, and others with Norway.

6. *Germania*.—In speaking of ancient Germany, we must carefully distinguish between the country of Germania, which nearly corresponds to the territory occupied by the modern Germans, and the Germaniæ, or two provinces created by Augustus on the left or western bank of the Rhine. These were called Germania Superior and Inferior, according to their position along the course of the stream, so that the upper province was that which lay the further to the south. This extended from Basilia (Bâle) to Mogontiacum (Mayence), and was enclosed between the Rhine and the Vosges Mountains; while the lower province reached from that point to the sea on the coasts of the Batavi, its most important and most central city being Colonia Agrippinensis (Cologne). About half-way between that place and the sea lay Castra Vetera, the

principal military station on the Lower Rhine, and near the mouth of that river, *Lugdūnum Batavorum* (Leyden). The territory of these provinces, it will be seen, was taken out of Gaul, though the population was for the most part German. The country of Germania lay between the Rhine and the Vistula, and between the Baltic and the Danube. Almost all the rivers of the area thus enclosed flowed northward, the principal being the *Visurgis* (Weser), *Albis* (Elbe), and *Viādus* (Oder). The mountains which lay in the southern portion are shown to have been densely wooded by the term *Silva* which is frequently applied to them: the name *Hercynia Silva* was vaguely used to designate them all. The barbarous tribes by whom Germany was peopled offered a stubborn resistance to the Roman arms, and the names of several of them became famous at a later time, when they in their turn invaded Italy. Those most frequently mentioned are the following. To the north of the Danube, the *Quadi* towards the east, the *Marcomanni* in the centre, and the *Alemanni* in the west towards the Black Forest; northward of whom, towards the interior of the country, were the *Chatti* and *Cherusci*; of the latter of these the famous *Arminius* was a chieftain. Along the right bank of the Rhine below *Mogontiacum* the *Ubii*, *Sicambri*, *Tenctēri*, and *Bructēri*; and on the shores of the German Ocean the *Frisii* in modern Holland and Friesland, and the *Chauci*. To the west of the lower course of the *Albis* the *Langobardi*; between that river and the Baltic the *Saxōnes* and *Angli*, and in the Cimbric peninsula (Jutland) the *Cimbri*. Many of these tribes were comprehended under the general name of *Suevi*, though its application varied at different periods. The north of Germany was known to the Greeks at an early date through the amber (*electrum*) which was found on the shores of the Baltic, and brought southwards by traders to the Mediterranean.

7. The Provinces bordering on the Danube.

—The country that lay to the south of the upper



waters of the Danube was called Vindelicia, and was for the most part a level district ; the Alpine region between this and Italy, bounded on the west by the country of the Helvetii, was called Rhætia (Tyrol and the Grisons) ; its principal city was Curia Rhætorum (Chur). To the east of these two provinces, and separated from them by the Ænus (Inn), lay Noricum, which was famed for the iron and steel which were obtained from its extensive mines. Some distance further to the east the Danube, which hitherto has flowed generally eastward, makes a sudden bend to the south, after which it resumes its original direction. Between Noricum and this long southward reach lay Pannonia, the westward part of which was called Upper, the eastward Lower Pannonia. The greater part of this area was a plain, and it was watered in its southern part by two important rivers, the Dravus (Drave) and Savus (Save), both of which flowed into the Danube. Its principal towns were Vindobōna (Vienna) on the Danube, near the frontier of Noricum, Petovio on the Drave in Upper Pannonia, the military headquarters of the Romans, and Sirmium on the Save in Lower Pannonia, which ultimately became the most important place in the country. The territory that lay between Pannonia and the Euxine, and between the Danube and the Hæmus and Dinaric Alps, corresponding to the modern Servia and Bulgaria, formed the two provinces of Mœsia Superior and Inferior, the titles being given according to their position on the course of the stream, as was also the case with those that lay about the Nile and Rhine. The vast plains to the north of the Danube, which now form the Danubian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, were the ancient Dacia ; this was not conquered by the Romans until the time of Trajan, who established numerous colonies in the country. These have left behind them a permanent influence in the Wallachian language, which is as lineal a descendant of Latin as French and Italian.

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